Central States

SPEECH JOURNAL

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Current Articles In The Regional Journals
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It's More Fun to Know — Books — Reflections from the Retired
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Sustaining Members

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INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

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Contributors to the *Journal* will facilitate publication consideration and publication by adhering to the following recommendations.

Manuscripts should be sent directly to the Editors *or* to the appropriate member of the Advisory Staff. Each manuscript will be reviewed by three members of the Advisory Staff before a publication decision is made by the Editor.

All copy should be double-spaced on 8½" x 11" bond paper. The author should retain a duplicate copy to facilitate future correspondence with the Editor. The first page of the text should start with the title centered at the top of the page and in capitals. The name of the author or authors should be centered two spaces below the title and in capitals and lower case. The name of the author's institution or affiliation should be centered two spaces below the author's name and in capitals and lower case. The statement of central theme should start flush with the left margin and should be in capitals and lower case underlined. (See examples of statement of central theme in issues of *CSSJ* beginning with Volume X, Number 1). Authors are encouraged to provide sub-headings to help clarify organization. These sub-headings should be centered and in underlined capitals and lower case. Footnotes and tables should appear on separate pages following the final page of the manuscript. Manuscripts should not exceed 4,000 words.

In all instances not covered above, manuscripts should conform to the MLA *Style Sheet.* Copies may be secured from the Treasurer, Modern Language Association, 100 Washington Square East, New York City 3, New York. Price: 25 cents.

Galley proof of articles accepted for publication will be sent to the author for final checking. Corrected proof must be returned to the Editor within one week.

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THE ROLE OF THE REGIONAL SPEECH ASSOCIATION

An Editorial

N. Edd Miller, President
Central States Speech Association

Originally, the Central States Speech Association was designed to fill the convention vacuum created in those years when the national association met in some other geographic area than that of the Mid-West — particularly when the national convention was held in some city other than Chicago. In a very short number of years, though, the organization had grown in size and strength to the point where annual meetings were considered the established routine.

In light of this original purpose and its modification, perhaps it is fair to ask if the association has become "just another" organization intent on keeping itself alive. In this era of rapid transportation when a national convention held in any city of the country is just a few hours away from any other part of the country and in this time of increased specialization and its resultant increased strength in membership and programming of the various national speech organizations, it is perhaps wise to raise the question of the function of a regional speech association.

It seems to me that the following reasons can be set forth as sufficient justification of the existence of a regional speech association — indeed for warm and enthusiastic support for such an organization:

1. The regional organizations now are the only large professional meetings where all the speech disciplines still meet together. The continued specialization within our field is commendable and a sign of growing maturity. Nevertheless, there is a great deal of merit in the occasional sharing of ideas across lines of specialization. We have much to learn from each other. The 1959 meeting of CSSA recognizes this, and the April program contains, for example, a section meeting devoted to the relationships among the various areas in speech, a speech scientist reading a paper in a section meeting on interpretation, and other instances of cross-fertilization.

2. The regional organizations, while continuing to grow in size, remain small enough in convention to allow for many more personal contacts than is possible at national meetings. I hasten to say that all of us want the CSSA to continue to increase its membership and its attendance at conventions, but even with the anticipated healthy growth, this organization will undoubtedly remain a smaller group than SAA, ASHA, or AETA. Informal professional contacts with our colleagues in all fields of speech are easier to establish in a regional organization.

3. The regional organizations make possible special emphasis on professional matters of regional concern. The April convention in Detroit, for example, will have several meetings concerned with speech in business, industry, and labor. This kind of special emphasis is not possible in the larger, more diverse, national organizations.

4. Regional speech associations serve the speech teachers of an area in more direct fashion than the national organizations simply because of the physical nearness of conventions than is regularly true of the national groups. Year after year, the annual meeting of a regional organization is within fairly easy travel distance of all its membership. It is nearly always possible for speech teachers to attend the convention of a regional organization; but often difficult, because of distance, to attend the conventions of the national organizations.

5. Meetings and publications of regional organizations give more attention to practical problems in teaching speech than do national organizations. It would certainly be most undesirable if this emphasis were carried to an extreme in regional meetings, but one strong attraction of regional organizations is the attention paid to many of the practical "how to do it" aspects of our profession. This type of program can be especially attractive to beginning teachers of speech.

6. Regional organizations perform a valuable professional service in the publication of Journals. Additional publication outlets are provided and the quality and scope of published material in our field is increased. These publications have become increasingly valuable in recent years and the quality of material published has improved substantially. All of us in the CSSA can look with pride at the CSSA *Journal*. Editor Keith Brooks has made many innovations in an effort to make the *Journal* even more attractive and useful.

7. Finally, regional organizations sponsor projects of value to those living and working in the area. The CSSA Committee on Secondary Schools, for example, is conducting a thorough study of teacher certification problems in the thirteen states of the region. Projects of this sort are more practical under the auspices of a regional association than if done by a national group.

My thesis is that we should not be defensive about the existence of the CSSA, but rather recognize the many aspects of service available to the organization. Because of the functions described here — and others — our regional speech organization is deserving of our active support. A special attempt has been made to make the April meeting a valuable one for all members of the CSSA. Make plans now to attend the meeting in Detroit and demonstrate your overt support of the association.

ATTEND THE

CENTRAL STATES SPEECH CONVENTION

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The Alabama Governor's Primary, 1954 a Case Study ..... DONALD H. ECROYD
The New Play Program in the South: A Reason for Pride ..... EDWIN R. SCHOELL
Men, Movements and Materials for Research in Public Address in Virginia ..... ROBERT C. JEFFREY

TODAY'S SPEECH ..... ROBERT T. OLIVER, *Editor*

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Ramus, Ames, Perkins and Colonial Rhetoric ..... H. H. MARTIN
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Symposium: Considerations in Aphasia Testing and Therapy
Medical Considerations ..... A. C. RUBIN
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Duration of Homophones ..... H. J. OYER
The Deaf and Articulation ..... A. L. LARR
Communication Problems and Counseling ..... C. D. Nelson

Authors In This Issue

Gladys L. Borchers, author of *German Speech Education*, is Professor of Speech and Education in the College of Education and the College of Letters and Science at the University of Wisconsin. She received the Bachelor of Arts degree in 1921, the Master of Arts degree in 1925, and the Doctor of Philosophy degree in 1927 from the University of Wisconsin. Her recent publications include "What Are We Doing About Speech" in the January, 1959, *Wisconsin Journal of Education* and two texts: *Speaking and Listening*, 1956 (with A. T. Weaver and Donald K. Smith), and *Teaching of Speech*, 1952 (with Weaver and Smith). Dr. Borchers is a member of the Committee on Committees for the Speech Association of America, the Committee on Teacher Certification for the Speech Association of America and the Wisconsin State Speech Association. In June of 1958, Dr. Borchers was awarded The Distinguished Alumni Award from Whitewater Wisconsin State College.

A Readability-Listenability Analysis of Selected Campaign Speeches of Adlai E. Stevenson In The 1952 and 1956 Presidential Campaigns was authored by *William E. Beattie* of Clarion State Teachers College, Clarion, Pennsylvania. Mr Beattie received the Bachelor of Arts degree from Wayne State University in 1955 and has done graduate work at Wayne State University, Ohio University and the University of Illinois. His quantitative article represents his first publication in a Speech journal.

Norton B. Young, an Assistant Professor of Speech at the University of Oregon, received the Bachelor of Science degree from the University of Washington in 1950 in the area of psychology. He pursued work in Speech Pathology and received the Master of Arts degree from the University of Washington in 1953. His work in Speech Pathology was continued at Purdue and in 1957 was graduated with the Doctor of Philosophy degree. He is the 1958-59 President of the Oregon Speech and Hearing Association. His article appearing in this issue is titled "*Certain Effects On Vocal Pitch of Frequency Modulated Instantaneous Auditory Feedback.*"

Edward Palzer, author of *Rubies, Robots, and Rubescence*, is Chairman of the Department of Speech at the University of Tampa. He received the Doctor of Philosophy degree at the University of Denver in 1957. A recent publication by Dr. Palzer, *The Strange Case of Speaker Jekyllhyde* appeared in *Today's Speech* in November of 1958. *Speech Taught As A Continuum in Human Relations* is scheduled to appear in the *Florida Education Journal* in May of 1959.

A Telephone Survey of Religious Program Preferences Among Listeners and Viewers in Los Angeles was authored by *Fred Casmir*, Assistant Professor of Speech at George Pepperdine College, Los Angeles, California. Mr. Casmir received the Bachelor of Arts degree from David Lipscomb College in 1950 and the Master of Arts degree from The Ohio State University in 1953. His article represents his first publication activity in a Speech journal.

Henry M. Moser, *John J. O'Neill* and *Herbert J. Oyer* authored *Effects of Test Format On Listener Response*. These men are members of the faculty of the Department of Speech of The Ohio State University. Dr. Moser, Professor of Speech and Director of the Speech and Hearing Clinic, received the Bachelor of Arts degree in 1924 from Ohio State, the Master of Arts in 1927 from the University of Michigan and the Doctor of Philosophy in 1936 from the University of Iowa. He is a Fellow in the American Speech and Hearing Association; supervisor of an Air Force Research Contract (currently the largest research contract in existence at Ohio State) dealing with the study of Aviation Language; and the United States representative to the International Civil Aviation Organization Panel. John J. O'Neill, Associate Professor of Speech, received his Bachelor of Science and Doctor of Philosophy degrees from The Ohio State University in 1947 and 1951, respectively. Dr. O'Neill is a Fellow of the American Speech and Hearing Association. His most recent articles include *The Ohio Hearing Cruiser* published in the November, 1958, *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders* (co-authored with Wm. Grimm) and *A Televised Lipreading Series* published in the Winter, 1958, issue of the *Central States Speech Journal*. Herbert J. Oyer, Assistant Professor of Speech, received his Bachelor of Arts degree from Bluffton College in 1943, the Master of Science degree from Bowling Green State University in 1949, and the Doctor of Philosophy degree from The Ohio State University in 1955. He is a member

of the Abstracts Committee of The American Speech and Hearing Association and the Ethical Practices Committee of the Ohio Association of Speech and Hearing Therapists. Dr. Oyer's most recent publications include *Relative Intensities of Sound at Various Anatomical Locations of the Head and Neck During Phonation of the Vowels* published in the April, 1958, issue of the *Journal of the Acoustical Sociey of America* and *The Relationship of Mandibular Movement to Intelligibility* published in the Spring, 1958, issue of *The Southern Speech Journal.*

A. Craig Baird, Professor Emeritus of the University of Iowa Department of Speech, is now teaching at Southern Illinois University. Dr. Baird received the Bachelor of Arts degree from Wabash College in 1907, the Bachelor of Divinity in 1910 from Union Theological Seminary, the Master of Arts degree from Columbia University in 1912 and was awarded the Doctor of Literature degree by Wabash College in 1931. He has published extensively in the areas of Discussion, Debate and General Speech. His texts include *Essentials of General Speech* and *General Speech,* both of which were co-authored with Franklin H. Knower. A. Craig Baird was the twenty-fourth President of the Speech Association of America. His article appearing in this issue is called *Discussion and Debate in the Space Age.*

Raymond S. Ross, Assistant Professor of Speech at Wayne State University, is the author of the BOOKS feature in this issue — *New Developments in Business and Industrial Communication.* Dr Ross received his Bachelor of Philosophy and Master of Arts degrees from Marquette University in 1949 and 1950, respectively. He received the Doctor of Philosophy degree from Purdue University in 1954. His publications have been primarily in the area of communication for business and industry. Dr. Ross is currently an officer in the Business and Professional Speaking Interest Group of the Speech Association of America.

REFLECTIONS FROM THE RETIRED makes its third appearance with *Winifred Ward* writing *The Place of Creative Dramatics In Speech Education.* Miss Ward is currently assisting in the construction of a Monograph sponsored by the American Educational Theatre Association and the Children's Theatre Conference concerned with the Basic Principles and Practices of Children's Theatre and Creative Dramatics in the United States. Also, she is working on a survey of Educational Drama in Church and Vacation Schools for the Religious Drama Project of the AETA. (*See picture and additional information with article*).

German Speech Education

Gladys L. Borchers
University of Wisconsin — Madison

Following is a report of German Speech Education based on two visits to Europe, one from January to June 1939 and one from August 1954 to September 1955. It is the hope that these observations may add to what others have found and help to encourage an exchange of philosophies and methods.

In the introduction to his recent book *Gesprochene Dichtung*, Dr. Christian Winkler of the University of Marburg, writes of "taking on one's self the *daring* task of making a speaker."[1] This is a significant statement because it reflects Winkler's point of view that speech can and should be taught but that it is no assignment for the novice. Winkler demonstrates that to teach speech effectively it is not only necessary to have an understanding of physical and linguistic elements of speech, but the history, art, music and literature of the people who use it. In his books and articles he shows familiarity with research and a recognition that a complete formulation of the principles of speech education will come only with an appreciation of all of the mysteries of life. In *Deutsche Sprechkunde und Sprecherziehung*,[2] 1954, with Erika Essen, he offers a thorough and scholarly treatment of Fundamentals of Speech; in *Lautreines Deutsch*,[3] 1950, he assembles exercises and instructions for fixing improved habits; in *Lesen als Sprachunterricht*,[4] 1952, a revision of a 1940 publication, he lays out a plan for meaningful communicative reading; and in *Gesprochene Dichtung*,[5] 1958, he concentrates on the oral delivery of poetry. Winkler's confidence that speech can and should be taught no doubt grows out of two broad experiences: first, early training as a student of Erich Drach, and second, practice and adaptation in Switzerland and Germany of the principles taught by Drach.

Not only Winkler, but Christians, Graef, Lebede, Simon, Kaulhausen, Tack, and Weller, well known German teachers of speech studied with Erich Drach who in 1917 became a lecturer for elocution at the University of Berlin. Drach followed Emil Milan who died in 1917. He was the son of Emil Drach, head stage manager of the Courtyard Actors in Munich. He had studied under Milan, had attended the school of Max Reinhardt, and had played leading roles in the theaters of Heidelberg, Oldenburg and Lübeck.[6]

In spite of Drach's introduction to, and long contact with, speech through acting and the theater, he became a strong advocate of a new concept: speech education for all. He saw the need for effective oral communication in connection with the arts, in political life, in science, and in every day living. While at the University of Berlin he was called to instruct in speech at the Berlin Academy of Church and School Music; he taught in a college for politics; he contributed to the education of technical students; and was an instructor in a school for adult education. He established himself as the founder of modern speech education in Germany.[7]

In addition to advocating the importance of good speech as essential in good living, Drach insisted that improvement of all forms of speaking: conversation, discussion, acting, reading, was based on the mastery of speech fundamentals. He believed these to be the same for everyone and that the adaptation to individual differences and to different speech forms should be made only *after* the fundamental skills and processes were mastered.[8]

In his teaching in Marburg, Winkler followed Drach's philosophy. He demonstrated his faith in a thorough emphasis on fundamentals, by teaching breathing, bodily control, voice and diction, and after these, speaking, reading, or acting. Some part of every class period in first courses in speech was given over to supervised drill. According to Winkler, this first step should be under the direction of a trained speech teacher, the second step, speaking in a meaningful situation, should be carried on not only in the speech class, but in other classes or any place where speech is used. The name of Winkler is important in an understanding of German influence in speech education.

In 1939, Christian Winkler introduced Speech in Basel. He remained there from 1932 to 1935 then was recalled to Germany and given a position in the University of Göttingen. The Swiss liked him, because he believed in training the average as well as the handicapped and the gifted; his teaching was effective; and he was himself a good speaker. Ena Bernoulli who followed Winkler in Basel was German trained and was, according to the Secretary of Education, employed because her methods were similar to Winkler's.

In 1932, Wilhelm Leyhausen, then of Cologne, revived the teaching of the appreciation of literature through choric speaking. He had a deep interest in classical Greek and German literature and prepared students in selections from Aeschylus. He made pilgrimages to Athens, where choric readings were given in the settings where the plays had had their initial performances more than 2400 years earlier. Leyhausen also worked extensively with Goethe. He used parts of Faust, Prometheus, Pandora and other poems. He travelled with his students to appropriate places in Germany where the setting would add to the impressiveness of the performance. Marjorie Gullen, of London, studied with Leyhausen in Cologne and later trained English speaking groups in both England and America. From Cologne, Leyhausen went to Berlin and from there was invited to start choruses in Paris. Copenhagen, Oslo, Danzig, and Helsinki. Interest also spread in Germany and by 1939, there were flourishing groups in other universities.

In Leipzig, Alfred Simon had not only a speaking chorus but he emphasized the importance of good speech as a corollary of good teaching. In 1939, he studied the speech of 120 teachers in Saxony and experimented with methods for securing acceptable dialects.[9] Simon had studied phonetics under Daniel Jones and was developing carefully organized pronunciation guides for teachers when World War II interrupted his work.

In 1939, Fritz Gerathewhol had a fairly extensive program in speech education at the University of Munich. Although his main emphasis was rhetoric and direct address, he also taught the interpretation of literature. His text *Richtiges Deutschsprechen*[10] shows his belief that the mastery of fundamentals is the first step in all speech improvement.

At this time, the University of Vienna was active in speech. Dr. Felix Trojan had gained recognition in speech pathology and Dr. Theodor Rutt had assembled a library of recordings of the speech of people from every part of the world. Such archives were found in other centers, the most complete in Hamburg.

From 1939 to 1954, Germany made further progress in Speech Education.

This was evident at the National Convention in Marburg in October 1954. From two hundred to two hundred fifty persons were in attendance. The lectures, discussions, and book and visual aid displays were held in the main auditorium, classrooms, and halls of Ernst von Hülsen-House, Phillips Universität. The program was almost as varied as that of the 1958 convention of the S.A.A. in Chicago. The audiences were made up of men and women dedicated to the belief that speech is an important consideration in Education.

The convention lasted three days and was organized into general and special sessions, with each of the following topics given some consideration: Speech Fundamentals, Voice Improvement, Bodily Action for Speech, Subject Matter, Listening, Audience, Grammar, Speech Psychology, Pronunciation, Articulation, Dialects, Pause or Speech Silence, Speech for Foreigners, Speech Disorders, Hearing Disorders, Conversation, Public Speaking, Business Speaking, Interpretative Reading, Drama, Choric Speaking, Discussion and Debate, Radio and Television, Relation of Painting and Sculpture to Speech, Speech and Music, Literature and Speech, Visual and Auditory Aids, Methods for Classroom Speech Teaching, Methods of Criticism, Criticism of Convention Speakers, Speech Archives, Research, Publications of Books and Journals, Bibliographies, Speech in the Elementary School, Speech in the Secondary School, Speech in the United States, The Problem of Professional Status, and demonstrations in teaching: Voice Improvement, Poetry Reading, Discussion, Choric Speaking and the use of Visual and Auditory Aids.

Teachers from all levels were represented in the German National Professional Organization, but members from the colleges were more numerous and seemed to hold the important offices, due no doubt to the fact that the speech program was more advanced in the universities than in the lower schools. Sixteen of the twenty-one leading universities in Germany gave some training in speech.

Every speech teacher I met in Germany seemed to be a dedicated person. He recognized that his task was a complicated and intangible one, and that the tool he was attempting to perfect was powerful and should be in the hands of persons with high ethical standards. Dr. Marie-Hed Kaulhausen in an introductory speech course in Göttingen took occasion to introduce students to the importance of taking responsibility for what one said and recalled this concept repeatedly in her elementary courses.[11] Leo Fusshöller of Gelsenkerchen made this same emphasis at the secondary level. This point of view was the rule. Freedom of Speech had deep meaning for both faculty and students. Efforts to put it to effective use were observed with children and adults at elementary, secondary and college levels.

Almost every speech teacher in Germany was able to exemplify what he taught. Most were recognized as distinguished lecturers and discussion leaders. Some were actors, radio speakers and public readers.

The atmosphere of the speech classes was surprisingly relaxed and friendly. The student was encouraged to speak and criticize. His opinions were respected and everywhere there was marked courtesy and mutual respect. Every effort was made to find *causes* for speech weaknesses and to help students understand relationships.

In Germany as in America, the speech courses were usually organized differently at the secondary level from the way they were organized at the college level. In a report at the National Convention in Marburg, Oberstudienrat Felix Arends spoke of the Language Arts divisions of speaking, reading, listening, and writing. This organization assumed that a single teacher should be prepared to teach the four areas and this

was the case in the limited number of secondary schools where I visited. At Nicalaus Cusanus Gymnasium in Bad Godesberg, Bose Platz School for Girls in Wiesbaden, the High School at Thun, the Secondary Schools of Munich, and the Schuldorf School, speech was taught by those teachers who taught the writing and reading of German, as in America, it is often taught by those who teach the writing and reading of English. Unlike the secondary school, the college speech program was in many cases more clearly separated from the Department of German. There were many instructors whose sole responsibility was speech.

Methods for teaching the fundamentals were remarkably similar. The importance which Erich Drach assigned to the acquiring of basic skills seemed to be accepted by most of the outstanding college teachers of speech. All performance courses which I visited, whether in every day speech, public address, reading, or acting, were built on a thorough mastery of natural breath control, voice production, and acceptable pronunciation. Other elements were given consideration, but the three above were mastered first.

The German speech teachers, worked for what they called "natural" breathing for speech. They did more than *assign* breathing exercises. They had students *practice* the exercises during some part of every class period. In a visit of several weeks at the University of Bonn, I attended regularly an elementary speech class taught by Dr. Paul Tack. At the opening of each period the windows were opened wide and students were directed to stand in a circle, and relax. Dr. Tack moved from one to another, testing each until he was satisfied that each student had accomplished this first step. As a second step, they were directed to exhale as much air as possible. Then, when commanded, they were to inhale through the nose until the lungs were completely filled. Tack called attention to the way the belly swelled out, the flanks and ribs stretched out until no more air could be taken in. Then, after a pause, the students puckered their lips as in a whistle and let the air flow out. They were asked to note how the belly flattened and to feel the sensation as it did so. When students were unable to inhale and exhale as directed, Dr. Winkler had them lie flat on their backs on a couch or bench and breathe as if asleep. Later they tried to accomplish the same thing in a standing position. A great variety of exercises were used to accomplish control of the exhaled breath stream. Some included the lip position for the German umlaut, voiced and voiceless consonants, the musical scale, vowel sounds, and difficult combinations of vowels and consonants. Winkler taught differences in breathing for singing and for speaking; Hanni Schultheiss of the Bose Platz School emphasized similarities; Zinsli of Bern, made clear the importance of understanding the physical mechanism before attempting voice improvement; Wittsack gave careful drill in breathing when teaching the reading of German Literature and Winkler showed how posture adjusted the sounds to the proper resonators and how sound was related to meaning.

The time for taking air into the lungs in the reading of literature was also observed and directed. Students were asked to analyze meaning and in this way determine the most effective place to inhale or exhale. This was often accomplished in practice with concentration on breathing rather than the idea. When the process seemed to be automatic, meaning was given consideration.

Work with articulation and pronunciation followed drill in breathing. Here the typical systematic, careful, patient work of the German was much in evidence. Motivation seemed to be strong. Germans wanted to eradicate the elements of substandard dialects in the pronunciation of the native tongue and foreigners were

eager to master the German Language. There were sections for both groups in each university and training for the latter was a heavy responsibility in such locations as Bonn, Frankfurt, Munich, Bern, Zurich, and Mainz.

An understanding of the differences between vowels and consonants, voiced and voiceless sounds, difficult combinations of sounds, were usually taught with the help of the I.P.A. phonetic symbols and careful observation and mastery of the best use of the articulators and resonators. Instructors gave individual help to large numbers without appearing to feel the pressure of time.

At the convention in Marburg a demonstration by children, each from one of nine different areas, made clear the dialect problem in Germany. Together the children told a story, and as each spoke his part, differences in pronunciation were noted. Dr. Heinz Kumetat of Cologne on the same program illustrated the importance of rhythm in learning to speak a language.[12] With a record of the Musicians of Bremen, he illustrated the importance of the rising and falling inflections and other rhythm changes. Baumgart of Erlangen used *September Morgen* by Edward Morike to teach the rhythm and pronunciation of four acceptable German dialects as well as to test pronunciation. The danger of too much precision after such practice was recognized and there were many examples of attempts to get flowing speech, elision, the light attack on initial sounds, etc. Wittsack, Winkler, and Kaulhausen were also especially skillful in directing students to master the rhythms of languages.

Repeatedly musical knowledge was used to help with the understanding and improvement of voice. The German professor assumed a knowledge of and interest in music and he was seldom disappointed. An understanding of the resonance and volume of voice, variety of pitch, and voice and meaning, were often discussed and music and speech recordings were compared.

Visual and auditory aids were used frequently and skillfully. The laboratories in Frankfurt were especially well equipped with films, records, slides, recorders, charts. In Frankfurt, Marburg, and Erlangen, students studied voice by means of records of popular current plays and bodily action by means of films. The history of the theater was taught in Frankfurt supplemented by moving pictures of historical periods. These helps were accepted as an essential part of the equipment of modern speech teaching.

After a study of breathing, voice, action, and diction, attention was turned to speaking, reading and acting in actual situations. Illustrating the importance of teaching speech for everyday communication, Dr. Winkler cited research in the area of social conversation and Dr. Wittsack cited investigations in voice and the use of the telephone.

Choric speaking was used extensively as a device for improving voice and also as an art form. Mrs. Anne Marie Leyhausen had in a modest way at Mainz, Gonsenheim, in a school called *Das Delphische Institute*, continued the work of her late husband Dr. William Leyhausen. This group sponsored the international festival in choric speaking which was started by Professor Leyhausen, but the interest was not so great as it had been before Leyhausen's death. The 1955 institute scheduled for Saarbrucken listed eleven choruses: three from Spain, two each from France and England, and one each from Switzerland, Belgium, Sweden, and Germany.

Drama had an important place in speech education of Germany. From role playing dramatizations at elementary, secondary and college levels, to finished performances before international audiences, acting was a major interest. At the Speech Correction School in München-Buch-See in Switzerland, there were numerous

demonstrations where speech defectives dramatized problem situations. At Haus Schwalbach Discussion Center in Schwalbach, Germany, insecure saleswomen played roles in selling goods in difficult situations. Drama for literary appreciation and for pleasure was in evidence at the secondary level. In Wiesbaden, Thornton Wilder's *Happy Journey* was produced with real appreciation from the standpoint of both actors and audience, and at Bad Godesberg a class dramatization of David Copperfield added to literary appreciation. Dr. Flemming of Mainz supervised the college presentation of Lessing's *The Ticket and the Lottery*. He motivated students to restore space for a small university theater in the top floor of one of the university buildings. The students selected, directed, and produced the play. Research in the history, music, art, and style of acting of the period was carried on in a seminar under Professor Flemming. Professors Baumgart and Stalkus of Erlangen not only had charge of an ambitious drama program for the university, but they sponsored each summer, a well-attended International Drama Conference. A performance of T. S. Eliot's *Confidential Clerk* showed high quality teaching in drama at the University of Bonn. Interest in drama was also high at Marburg, Göttingen, Frankfurt, and Munich.

Puppets and marionettes were constantly in evidence with productions by and for students from pre-school age through college. One of the most interesting was the Keller Marionette Program originating in Bern, Switzerland.

Although Rhetoric, Public Address, Discussion and Debate were given attention in every German school where speech was taught, Dr. Fritz Gerathewohl of Munich was recognized as Germany's first authority in this area. He had extension classes in schools and with civic and educational organizations in many parts of Germany and because of this was at the University of Munich for only two days each week in 1954 and 1955. Due to his popularity, the enrollments were much too large, sometimes as many as eighty in a section. In teaching public speaking, great emphasis was placed on communication and audience reaction. This was not only true in Munich but at Göttingen, Marburg, Frankfurt, Mainz and Haus Schwalbach. The psychology of speaker audience relationship was analyzed in every school.

The teaching of Discussion and Debate was less effective than teaching in other areas. The distinction between the two speech forms was not always clearly defined, and leaders frequently attempted to cut off group, class, and audience participation, with the result that solutions for problems were not actually recommended. This was less true in the universities than at the secondary level and at Haus Schwalbach, but it seemed clear that group problem solving and decision making were new and somewhat foreign to Germans.[13]

The outstanding programs in radio and television were at the University of Frankfurt. Cooperation with city stations made training functional and teachers in the university were also engaged for commercial programming. Joint appointments with members of the Physics Department made training in technical radio available to students.

The area of Speech Correction was most outstanding in the Institut fur Lehrerfortbildung, in Hamburg, and at München-Buch-See in Switzerland. However, cases were being cared for by Ferenbach in Göttingen, Winkler in Marburg, Lockerman in Mainz, Kuhlmann in Freiburg, and doubtless many others.

A working knowledge of phonetics was clearly a part of the equipment of every speech teacher. Dr. Meyer-Eppler of the University of Bonn with a number of advanced graduate students was directing research in

this area. His appointment was for Phonetics and Communication research. He was also engaged in research in acoustics as was Dr. Wilhelm L. Höffe of Münster, Westfalen.[14] [15]

Dr. Paul Tack of Bonn after a short visit to some colleges and universities in the United States, expressed a great interest in an exchange of methods and ideas. He was of the opinion that valuable help could be given from both sides but he believed that Germany's greatest contribution would perhaps be in the field of Interpretation. He cited the broad understanding of literature essential for every well educated German, and the careful analysis required by every teacher of reading. The consideration of the pause, illustrated Dr. Tack's point of view. At the National Convention in Marburg one of the most helpful and stimulating talks was on the *Silence in Speech.* It demonstrated the relationship between meaning and delivery and illustrated how it could be taught effectively in connection with a careful analysis of the structure and meaning of literature.

Almost every teacher of speech in Germany read aloud frequently for his students. Schmidt, Geissner, and Wittsack of Frankfurt; Winkler and Essen of Marburg; Tack of Bonn; Kauhausen and Ferenbath of Göttingen; Baumgart and Stalkus of Erlangen; Schultheiss of Wiesbaden; Gerathewohl of Munich; Simon of Leipzig; Trojan of Vienna; Frank of Zurich; Zinsli of Bern; all were gifted readers.

While academic recognition of faculty and departments was slower in Germany than in America, in most respects the speech education programs were remarkably similar. Both had rapid expansion beginning about 1915. Methods in Fundamentals and in Special Fields had many characteristics in common. In both countries the relationships between Speech and Language and Literature Departments were not always clearly defined. Both countries were alike in having experienced a rapid growth and expansion which should promise significant influence through speech in schools, communities and countries, and should give fresh dignity to the field in which we work on both sides of the Atlantic.

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A Readability-Listenability Analysis of Selected Campaign Speeches of Adlai E. Stevenson in the 1952 and 1956 Presidential Campaigns

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Many commentators on the 1956 presidential campaign have asserted that Stevenson's speeches in that year were both less interesting and simpler than those in 1952. The author has applied the Flesch Readability Formulas to selected speeches in the two campaigns and has found that the charges are supported by application of the tests.

Any discussion of possible presidential candidates for 1960 inevitably involves the name of Adlai E. Stevenson. The two-time Democratic loser appears once again to have escaped the oblivion that is the traditional fate of the unsuccessful contender. That Stevenson could gain the Democratic nomination for a third time and, this time, lead his party to victory would be a prediction too early to be more than a guess. But whatever 1960 holds for Stevenson, it is widely held that he is the finest speaker now on the political scene.

Many have held that he is almost too fine a speaker for his own political good. They feel that Stevenson lost votes in 1952 by "talking over the audiences' heads," by being too scholarly and difficult to understand. Much guesswork and "expert" testimony has been forthcoming on this question, but virtually the only objective study of the style of his 1952 campaign speeches is the work of Siegel and Siegel, who applied the Flesch readability formulas to selected speeches of both Stevenson and Eisenhower. The study indicated no obscurity in Stevenson's style, the authors stating that it possessed only "standard" difficulty, a style characteristic of the "DIGESTS." There was even some slight tendency for Stevenson's speeches to possess greater reading-ease than Eisenhower's.[1]

Despite the Siegel and Siegel findings there was widespread feeling in political circles in 1956 that, if Stevenson were to overcome the personal popularity of Eisenhower, he must "get down to the level of the people."[2] Robert Larch, writing in the post-election presidential campaign analysis in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech,* cites the popular belief in a "supposedly lower level" for the 1956 speeches.[3]

At the same time it was charged that Stevenson's 1956 speeches were easier, many critics found them also less interesting. Typical in this regard are the remarks of H. F. Harding, writing in the same symposium as Larch: "Whereas Stevenson's 1952 speeches in published form attained best-seller recognition, I doubt whether the 1956 versions will appear in print." In comparing the speeches of the two campaigns, he found the 1956 speeches "not so good. I thought Stevenson's speeches of 1956 were less substantial, less witty, and at times less sincere."[4]

The present study was undertaken to answer two questions arising from the above campaign observations: 1)

Were Stevenson's speeches easier in 1956 than in 1952? 2) Were they less interesting?

METHODS

Siegel and Siegel analyzed newspaper texts of the last six speeches of the 1952 campaign. The present study makes a similar analysis of the last six of the 1956 campaign. All texts were taken from the versions published in the New York *Times* the day following the delivery of the speech.[5] The procedure followed in performing the analysis is that recommended by Rudolf Flesch in his *How to Test Readability*.[6] As with Siegel and Siegel, the entire texts were analyzed.

The validity and reliability of the Flesch tests has been given strong support by Gilinsky, Feld, Murphy, and others.[7] But the evidence as to whether or not the tests are valid and reliable guides to listenability as well as readability is less conclusive. Flesch himself says they are: "The test analyzes language to estimate its difficulty and abstractness. It doesn't matter whether the material is written or spoken. Experiments have shown, however, that what is hard to read is even *harder* to understand by listening, and, what is easy to read is *easier* to understand by listening. So, in a sense, the test works even better for speaking than for writing."[8] The findings of Chall and Dial, Cartier, and Harwood tend to support Flesch's assertion that the tests are measures of listenability as well as readability.[9]

RESULTS

The results of the analysis are presented in Tables I and II.

Siegel and Siegel found a mean Reading Ease score of 60.3 (Standard) and a mean Human Interest score of 34.0 (Interesting) for the six 1952 speeches they analyzed. Three of the 1952 speeches were classified as "Fairly Difficult" in style and three as "Standard." One of the 1952 speeches was classified as "Highly Interesting" and five as "Interesting."[10]

The present study rates one of the 1956 speeches as "Fairly Difficult," two as "Standard," and three as "Fairly Easy." The style of all the speeches is classified as "Interesting."

The mean Reading Ease score is, then, seen to be 5.8 points higher in the 1956 speeches than in the 1952 speeches. However, the mean Human Interest score is 4.7 points lower in 1956 than in 1952. Although the evidence is far from overwhelming, it tends to support affirmative answers to the questions asked in the first part of this study. It would seem that there was some tendency for Stevenson's 1956 speeches to be easier but less interesting than his 1952 speeches.

Table I

Flesch Reading Ease Scores for Texts of Six 1956 Presidential Campaign Speeches by Stevenson

Date	Score	Description
Oct. 31	53	Fairly Difficult
Nov. 1	63	Standard
Nov. 2	72	Fairly Easy
Nov. 3	73	Fairly Easy
Nov. 5 (Minneapolis)	66	Standard
Nov. 5 (Boston)	70	Fairly Easy
Mean	66.1	Standard

Table II

Flesch Human Interest Scores for Texts of Six 1956 Presidential Campaign Speeches by Stevenson

DATE	SCORE	DESCRIPTION
Oct. 31	34	Interesting
Nov. 1	22	Interesting
Nov. 2	33	Interesting
Nov. 3	27	Interesting
Nov. 5 (Minneapolis)	23	Interesting
Nov. 5 (Boston)	37	Interesting
Mean	29.3	Interesting

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Certain Effects on Vocal Pitch of Frequency Modulated Instantaneous Auditory Feedback

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The dynamic relationships between manipulations of auditory feedback and the vocal responses of the individual have been of both theoretical and practical interest. The present study sought to investigate one of the auditory feedback variables, namely, vocal pitch, which had heretofore received little attention. An attempt was made to assess the effects of an experimental pitch-shift of auditory feedback on the speaker's own vocal pitch, while maintaining normal relationships of the other feedback variables. Vocal pitch changes were seen to accompany the pitch-shifts of auditory feedback. However, these differences were not statistically significant and did not prove predictable from the amount and direction of change in the auditory feedback.

The search for dynamic relationships along the feedback loop comprised of the speech effector system, vocal signals and the sensory channels which purportedly convey information back to speech initiatory centers is believed by many experimenters to be one of the more fruitful fields for research to emerge in this decade. A point of entry most frequently chosen for investigation of these relationships is the auditory pathway. This channel combines easy accessibility for experimental manipulation with demonstrable influence on vocal output. So wide-spread has been the interest aroused by early reports of vocal effects attributable to delay of auditory sidetone (2, 5) that a review of subsequent convention papers and journal articles is beyond the scope of this report. Fortunately, the results and theoretical considerations arising from these studies are readily available to the interested reader. Suffice it to say, at this point, that subjects of sidetone experiments have been exposed to acoustic manipulation of all the parameters of either the output vocal signal or the auditory environment in which the signal is produced. Conventional acoustic measurements have been performed in attempts to assess the effects of these exposures on the dependent speech variables.

In the immediate frame of reference for the present experiment, it may be noted that manipulation of the fundamental frequency and harmonic spectrum of auditory side-tone has been accomplished in a restricted sense in several studies using masking noise and pure tone, as outside stimulus sources, and frequency filtering of instantaneous sidetone (1, 4, 6). While the results of these studies are not definitive they indicate a degree of relationship between alterations of these types and vocal changes. Insofar as is known, no study has sought to duplicate a sidetone pitch-shift of fundamental frequency and overtone structure while maintaining normal relationships of the other sidetone parameters. The noted lack of evidence concerning the vocal pitch aspect of speech sidetone stimulated efforts toward the development of instrumentation capable of imposing an instantaneous pitch-shift on the spectrum of auditory sidetone. Completion of the instrumental requirements

permitted the present study to be undertaken.

Specifically, the answer to one basic question was sought in this experiment, namely, are there differences in vocal pitch level attributable to the frequency level of pitch-shifted sidetone? This question was subdivided into: a) What are the effects of up-shift conditions of sidetone? b) What are the effects of downshift conditions of sidetone? c) Are there differences of response attributable to the amount of pitch-shift? d) What is the consistency of subject response to these altered sidetone conditions? e) Are there differences in response direction or magnitude attributable to the SPL of stimulus presentation?

Procedures

In order to satisfy instrumental requirements of the study, an instrument known as the "Audio Frequency Shifter" was completed by engineers of the Purdue Voice Science Laboratory.* The essential components of this circuit are presented in figure 1. The basic principle on which it functions is well known in telephone engineering, that of producing a single sideband and carrier wave suppression. In this case, the carrier and one sideband were balanced out by an arrangement of double modulators in which the carrier and modulating signal applied to one modulator were shifted 90 degrees with respect to those applied to the other modulator. A second oscillator was provided to supply the demodulator with a shifted carrier. The original and shifted carriers were then mixed to produce a beat frequency which could be measured by a pitch meter (3), yielding a measure of the carrier shift. The output of the demodulator provided the frequency shifted speech which was then amplified. A frequency response curve for the instrument, reveals a relatively flat response between 300 cps and 3,500 cps with a peak at 4,000 cps. Below 300 cps and above 4,000 cps the response falls off sharply.

Harmonic analyses of various square wave inputs and instrumental arrangements were conducted in order to validate the perceived pitch-shift of the voice. The results indicated that the instrument satisfactorily performed the task required of it: the elevation or lowering of component frequencies in a complex wave by specific amounts. However, an elimination of the fundamental and second harmonic of the wave and a destruction of normal harmonic relations took place, making necessary the perception of the fundamental by difference tone perception between adjacent harmonics. The shift was accomplished by the addition of discrete frequencies to successive harmonics, eliminating normal relationships of a true human pitch-shift in which all harmonics are integral multiples of the fundamental.

The following basic steps were employed in the experimental design and analysis of the data obtained:

1. Thirty male subjects, meeting criteria of normal hearing acuity and normal speech, were tested for habitual pitch level.

2. While subjects read a standard passage, three conditions of instantaneous auditory sidetone frequency manipulation at three conditions of sound pressure level were administered by earphones. These were: up-shift five semitone, no-shift and down-shift five semitones (based upon the individual subject's habitual pitch level), and sound pressure levels approximating loud speech (80 db), conversational speech (60 db), and quiet speech (40 db).

3. The vocal output under each condition was tape recorded for each speaker. These recordings were then subjected to sound level measurement and vocal frequency measurement by techniques of periodic sampling of pitch curves from the Purdue pitch recorder.

4. Statistical treatment of the data was performed by analysis of variance and signed rank techniques.

5. A second study, evolving from

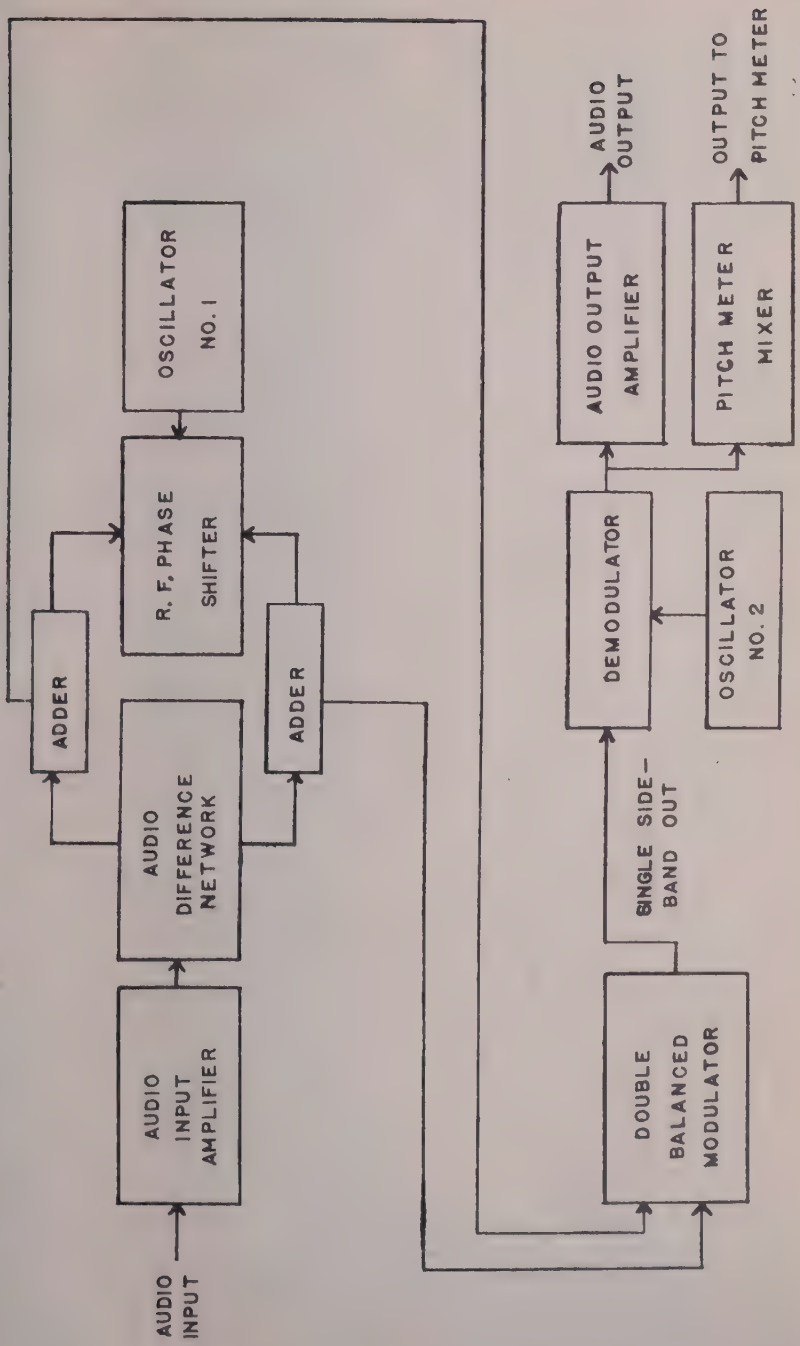

Figure 1. Block diagram of audio frequency shifter components.

the first, was conducted using 10 male subjects. The procedures were identical except for the following substitution of stimulus conditions: two no-shift conditions and two levels of upward pitch-shift. These were $\frac{1}{5}$ and $\frac{2}{5}$ octave intervals above the subject's estimated habitual pitch level. The sound pressure level was held at an approximate 80 db level.

6. These data were subjected to statistical analysis by the signed rank test.

The instrument arrangement for producing an instantaneous pitch-shift of a subject's auditory side-tone is shown in Figure 2. The voice was picked up by a crystal microphone placed a distance of three inches from the lips. The signal was passed directly to the audio frequency shifter and then returned to the speaker's ears via an SKL Variable Electronic Filter, Model 214B, a McIntosh Engineering Corp., Amplifier, Type 20-W-2, a Hewlett-Packard Corp. Step Attenuator, Model 350 A and an earphone headset, type ANB-H-1.

An Altec-Lansing Microphone, Type 21-B and an Altec-Lansing Power Supply, P-518, carried the voice to a Stancil-Hoffman, Model R-4 Tape Recorder.

Results

Part I. Vocal pitch means for thirty subjects tested under three conditions of pitch-shift and three SPL variations were computed and utilized in an analysis of variance. It was found that the F ratios for main effects attributable to sound pressure levels and pitch-shift conditions, as well as the interactions among main effects, fell short of the values required for significance and, therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. It would appear from this result that the direction of vocal pitch change of subjects under pitch-shift of auditory sidetone bears little relationship to the direction of change in the auditory sidetone. Stated differently, it would seem that there is little evidence that the subjects as a group shift their vocal pitch toward the direction of the stimulus change any more than away from the stimulus change.

Three types of responses were seen: 1) no, or relatively little pitch change, 2) a shifting with the stimulus and, 3) a shifting against the stimulus. Within three successive trial periods one, two or all three of these results could conceivably take place.

The signed rank test, a nonparametric statistic for testing the significance of differences between paired observations was utilized. All (T) values computed failed by a wide margin to achieve significance at the five percent level and thus supported the results of the analysis of variance.

Next, a subject-by-subject analysis was undertaken in order to study the apparent individual vocal pitch changes occurring under sidetone manipulation. Subjects were divided first on the criterion of following or opposing the sidetone pitch change. The results of this classification were as follows: 1) Thirteen subjects raised their vocal pitch in the direction of the up-shift condition. 2) The same number lowered their vocal pitch in the direction of the down-shift condition. 3) Fifteen subjects lowered their vocal pitch in opposition to the up-shift condition. 4) Fourteen subjects raised their vocal pitch in opposition to the down-shift condition. 5) Two subjects showed no measurable change in vocal pitch on the down-shift condition. The vocal pitch changes for each group ranged from means of zero to 11 cps.

A criterion of consistency between trials was used next. Five subjects consistently followed the stimulus direction with their vocal pitch change and seven consistently opposed it. The remainder of the subjects may have followed the stimulus in one condition but opposed it or showed no change on the next trial.

No simple description of the individual's vocal pitch reaction to pitch-modulated auditory feedback appears to be possible from the foregoing

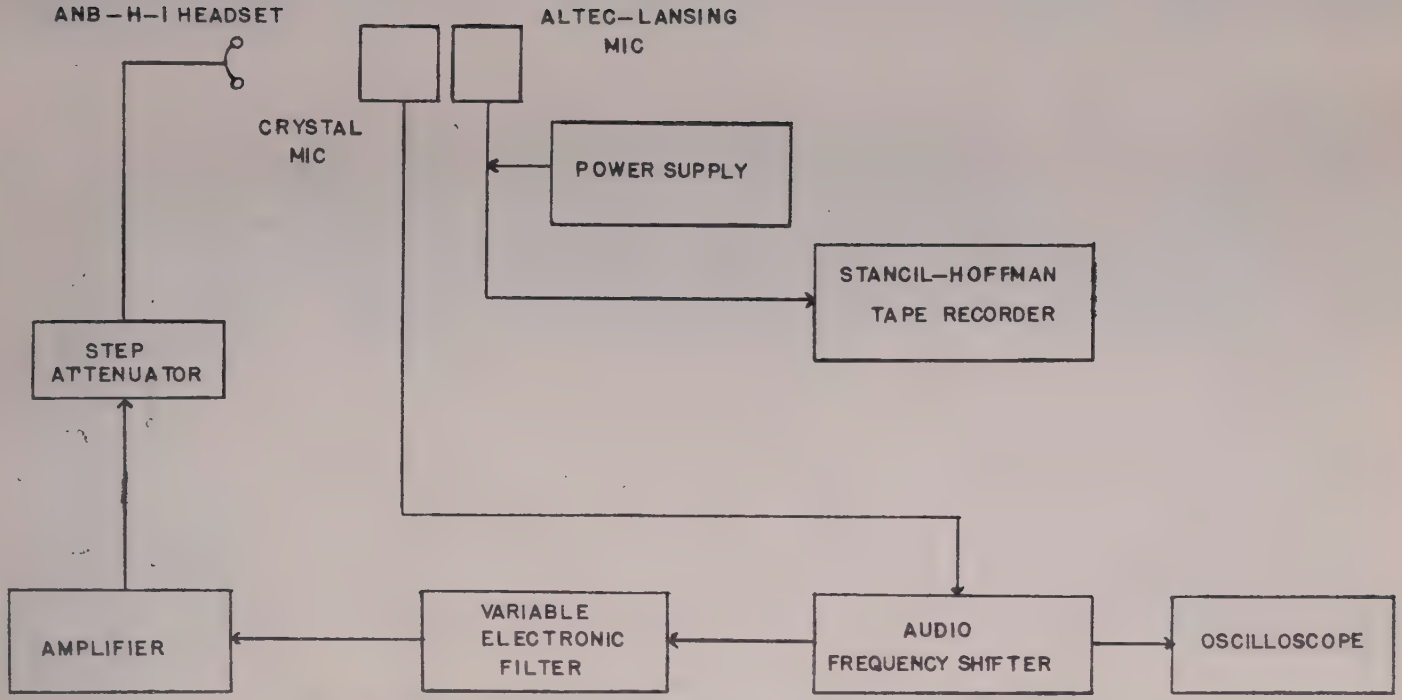

Figure 2. Block diagram of instruments for instantaneous pitch-shift of subject's auditory feedback.

analysis. However, certain observations are of interest in this part of the analysis.

First, a majority of subjects (29 of 30) demonstrated alterations in vocal pitch level accompanying the five semitone shift in instantaneous auditory feedback above and below the estimated habitual pitch level for each. When considered across thirty subjects, these changes seemed to be in a state of balance.

Second, an attempt to categorize the various responses shows that several groups could be isolated who varied in direction of response. A group of 12 of the 30 subjects was consistent between trials while the remainder were not.

Third, there appeared to be a slightly larger increment of pitch change among those subjects opposing the pitch-shifts than for those who followed them.

Part II. Ten additional subjects were selected and tested on one-third octave and two-third octave shifts above their estimated habitual pitch levels. The sound pressure level was held constant at the approximate 80 db level for each condition. Means representative of vocal pitch were computed for each subject and condition and used in a signed rank test of matched observations.

The results of this analysis are presented in Table I. The column headed Sum of the Smallest Rank viewed in comparison with the Significance Points column demonstrates that in no comparison does the (T) score appear as equal to or smaller than the significance points given. Hence, the experimental data do not permit the rejection of the statistical hypothesis that the means are symmetrically distributed around a mean of zero. This finding may be put in terms of the experimental variables used by stating that for the subject group tested, no significant difference in vocal pitch level appears to be associated with one pitch-shift condition to a greater extent than with another. It is important to note that a non-significant difference was obtained between the two no-shift control conditions as well as the pitch-shift trials.

Individual vocal pitch level changes were analyzed and subjects were classified into groups who shifted in the direction of the stimulus change or opposed it. The same directions and magnitudes of vocal pitch-shift were noted as with the first group tested. The "plus" responses tend to balance the "minus" responses, thus preventing any group predictions to be made from the data.

TABLE I

Signed rank test of significance for ten subjects. These were tested on two "no-shift" conditions, and "up-shift" conditions of one-third octave and two-third octave intervals above the estimated habitual pitch level of each.

Pairs of Means Compared	N	Sum of Smallest Rank (T)	Significance Points For (T) .05
*NS trial I vs. NS trial II	9	16.0	6
NS trial I vs. **US $\frac{1}{3}$ Octave	7	12.0	2
NS trial I vs. US $\frac{2}{3}$ Octave	8	17.0	4
NS trial II vs. US $\frac{1}{3}$ Octave	10	26.5	8
NS trial II vs. US $\frac{2}{3}$ Octave	10	26.5	8
US $\frac{1}{3}$ Octave vs. US $\frac{2}{3}$ Octave	8	17.5	4

*NS: "no-shift"

**US: "up-shift"

Eight of the ten subjects proved consistent in either following or opposing the auditory change. For those who followed the stimulus, the shift in mean vocal frequency was five cps, while the vocal shift was approximately five and one-half cps for those who opposed the shift in auditory sidetone frequency.

Discussion

The results of all statistical analyses — both parametric and non-parametric—of these data were essentially negative. However, before conclusions are drawn from these negative finding, it is well to consider certain predictions which might have been made before the investigation was undertaken. The first of two diametrically opposed predictions was the following:

> Persons subjected to pitch-shifted sidetone are likely to resist the shifts, countering with vocal frequency shifts opposite in direction to the sidetone shift.

This is the general pattern of response to delayed sidetone which Atkinson (1) has described as "a tendency toward behavioral homeostasis."

Quite a different prediction might have been made, also based on apparently valid logic and experimentation. This may be stated as follows:

> Persons subjected to pitch-shifted sidetone are likely to respond to such stimulation by vocal frequency adjustments in the direction of the shifted sidetone.

This tendency has been observed in military voice communication studies, where the responding talker reflects vocal sound pressure level and duration characteristics of the initiating talker.

A third prediction between the two above extremes might have been made on a rational basis as follows:

> The person subjected to pitch-shifted sidetone is likely to be unaffected in the fundamental frequency characteristics of his vocal output.

One of the few comparable experiments previously published (1) reported negative findings when subjects were stimulated with pure tones of various frequencies.

The results of the present study would tend to support all three of these predictions when analyzed in terms of both group and individual response. Despite the statistical non-significance of the results, vocal responses of individual subjects appeared to be affected by the fundamental frequency characteristics of the sidetone. How these affected subjects may be distinguished from those unaffected by the stimuli was not revealed by the investigation. Personality factors, the relative degree of dependence upon kinesthetic, tactile, or auditory feedback cues, the physiology of the larynx, influencing the habitual pitch level, or even more subtle organic differences may have contributed to the group inconsistencies.

*Professor R. P. Siskind, of the Purdue School of Electrical Engineering, was the technical consultant who directed the design of this instrument.

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Rubies, Robots, and Rubescence

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The speaker's premise about the nature of the communication process may well condition his performance. When performance does not match premise and expectancy, he may become dissatisfied and frustrated. He may have thought of communication as direct transmission. If so, he may seek refuge in a prepared script. This in turn may mean miscalculation of his audience, with an unwillingness to adapt. The lack of adaptation will only serve to build a wall between himself and his listener, resulting in further frustration. The article offers a plan to unravel this cycle.

Claude Shannon at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology has a little gadget which frightens people. It has been called the "Ultimate Machine." It is as simple as can be. Just a small box, with one switch. You turn it on, and there is "an angry, purposeful buzzing. The lid slowly rises, and from beneath it emerges a hand. The hand reaches down, turns the switch off, and retreats into the box."[1]

What is the effect of this strange activity upon the observer? Energy has been wastefully expended. Such waste invites a feeling of frustration. When the speaker trembles and shakes, he too is expending energy wastefully. He is working too hard, he is in a state of general tension, when it is rather specific tension that he needs to do a particular job. We usually tag such a condition as "stage fright." That is one kind of energy loss.

But there is another loss, that of compositional and verbal effort, when "results" do not seem to equal effort. What are these "results?" Presumably through the use of verbal symbols, the mental picture in the mind of the speaker is transplanted to the mind of the listener. When the speaker discovers that this has not happened exactly, he may experience another kind of frustration. In the same breath, he may come to feel bitter even about his training, and about the speech instructor himself. Perhaps in this training there was a striving for a polished final product. If so, the student, thinking only in terms of models and results, forgets the beginnings and creative efforts. He may have striven for a concealment of his own creative processes and methods once he got to the public audience stage with his speech. It is not surprising that if he denies his own creative processes he will also forget that the listener goes through any. Communication then appears to be transmission, and the verbal combinations in themselves are so set and fixed that they become walls rather than bridges between speaker and listener — and further sources of frustration.

How can the speech instructor solve these problems with his student? First, he must get him to realize that a symbol is not a self-sufficient entity or a completed one. The meaning is not really in the word, but rather in the mind of the listener. Likewise the "speech" itself is what the listener has created after he has reworked the raw materials and clues furnished by the speaker. The listener's created product may

then approximate that of the speaker, but it is important to note that it will not be identical in all respects.

The instructional task is twofold: some of these devices must be "premise shakers" which show the student what communication is *not*, and of course others must be "premise developers," which lead up to a realization of what communication *is*.

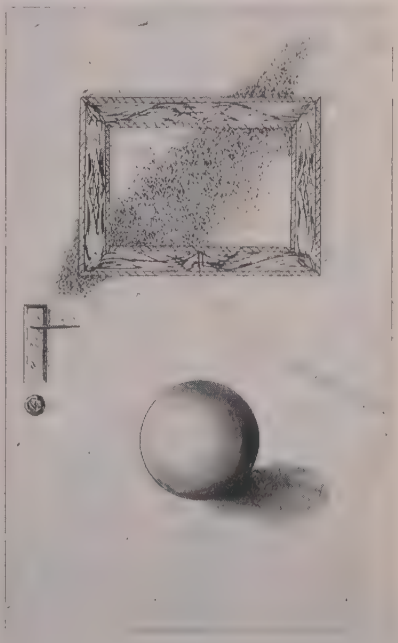
Not all illustrations are equally helpful or even accurate in giving the student a realistic conception of what takes place. For example, a line or arrow pointing from the speaker to the listener is in itself a misleading picture-impression. Even when the arrow is also shown in reverse to suggest circular communication, that is, from listener back to speaker, transmission may still be implied. If the circularity were defined as "mutually induced mental creativity," it would be more accurate. The speaker-communicator might be pictured as sending up clouds of trial balloons, and the listener as catching these, more or less eagerly, to be sure, but at least as personally reworking them in his own mind, so that he comes up with a new mental picture of his own.

The balloons are the stories, illustrations, descriptions, and in a broad sense, the raw materials which the speaker makes available to the listener. Of course the student will attach his own meaning, and perhaps he cannot be blamed if he regards the balloons as filled with air, cool or otherwise.

This experiment is convincing: let the speaker develop a certain idea, verbally painting a particular picture. Then let him invite the audience to doodle out the picture which comes to their mind. It will be revealing to compare notes, and thus to discover that while there are similarities, there are also surprising differences in the pictures which a roomful of listeners will spin out of the same verbal offerings.

Any illustration in which figure and background are shifted and alternated will convince the student that what the listener makes out of a given presentation is often highly relative and subjective. Example: moon and clouds. The moon may appear stationary while the clouds are floating across and past it. Or the clouds may be visualized as stationary, and it is the moon which is moving. The moon will look different again if a rocket is zooming toward it. Then it will again seem to be the stationary background, even though it is a fact that the moon is travelling at a speed of about 2300 miles per hour. The rocket appears to be the "figure" in motion if it is going 25,000 miles per hour.

A more complicated demonstration is that provided by the door to the Art Gallery on Cork Street, London. A map of the city is pasted over one side of the door. There is a splash of blue paint in the center. An old picture frame is fastened over the central area, part of the map and a smaller part of the blue paint is thus bounded by the picture frame.



The spectator may now have his choice of two views: in one way,

the framed area seems to be an aerial view of the city, especially since the blue paint splash suggests a cloud. But as the eye glances over the entire door, that framed area again becomes part of the original map. The blue splash becomes a painter's mistake instead of a cloud.

Near the bottom of the door is a plastic ball. It casts a shadow on the map to the right of the ball. That makes the map appear as a flat plane. But when the eye flits over to the old frame again, that same ball seems to be floating in the air. The shadow to the right of the ball then becomes impossible.

Alexander Dorner concludes that "one look at that door's self-changeability is enough to create a real revolution in our minds . . . The composition of this door explodes the final self sufficiency of the picture and the self-centered ball; it ridicules them."[2]

With the "premise-developer" type of demonstration, it is well to start by inviting the student to consider the Big Dipper at night. The student is quick to say that there is no dipper at all, but that individual stars are located in the sky so as to invite the star-gazer to connect the star-points with imaginary lines. Thus the Dipper is really created in the mind.

Any art creation where the burden of creativity is obviously on the receptor will be helpful in establishing a revised premise about the creative role of the receptor. Since objective paintings have no representational content, they spotlight this receptor role more obviously than other types, although the principle of creative collaboration is present in any type. The more *obviously* uncompleted the creation is, the more valuable it is as a teaching aid to point up the importance of the receptor's creative role. The invitation to the listener is very clear when he is given something to manipulate. Laszlo Moholy-Nagy, foremost exponent of this new type of art creation, does exactly this when he binds several transparent celluloid sheets into a little booklet.[3] On each sheet, or "page," he has painted some abstract designs in various color patterns. He hands this booklet to the spectator, inviting him to turn the pages slowly so that the light shines through. Each time he turns the pages, they bend in a different way and form new pictures. The student readily appreciates now that although the original artist did his part, he as receptor is also a creator as he turns the pages for himself.

From these two demonstrations, the student learns that the communication process can scarcely be absolute 1:1 transmission of the communicator's mental picture to the receptor, that these words are not precious rubies to be transferred, but are more like raw materials. Secondly, the student becomes aware that the receptor is in fact the final and therefore important creator in the communication process, for he reworks these preferred raw materials and creates something new in his own right and to a degree unique with himself.

He himself has created with materials which were once in unfinished form, and he was able to do so because he had a measure of "creative space." Far from concealing the materials and the making, he now reveals the process, in addition to providing the raw materials. Thus what he once learned as a student becomes more and not less important as he matures as a speaker.

He can actually use that first lesson later when he finds himself confronted with the challenge of speaking to an audience. Then he again reveals what he once learned about the technique of the making, the steps he himself went through, and especially the *fact* of the making. There is no more sense of futility about the lost training hours in which he once traced steps which would need to be abandoned later. Now he

can use all aspects and phases of the training to advantage.

Closely allied with this revelation of his own creative processes and methods during the preparation of his "speech", is some evidence of that creativity in the presence of the audience. If he speaks extemporaneously, he is *creating anew each time the verbal patterns* of the prepared ideas and assembled research. This in itself provides a creative atmosphere which makes it easier for the listener to create also. And the readiness of the speaker to adapt his material gives him the advantage of marshalling the clues and raw materials which are most creatively workable for the listeners in this particular audience.

The concept of communication as polished-ruby-transfer obviously does not bring the speaker and listener together into a closer creative collaboration. This is because the ruby is already a finished product, and there is less invitation to create anything more. In a sense, the speaker has tried to usurp the listener's end of the creative job, and whenever there is a role usurpation, there is also an incipient conflict situation.

The speaker is also quite concerned about losing any of the precious ruby cargo. This cargo, he imagines, will travel on some kind of supply line, and because supply lines are known to be tenuous at times, he takes special care in the precarious job of transportation. So he becomes preoccupied with the word, the exact selection of it, and the ultra-precise enunciation of it. The kind of pausing he employs, often between individual words, shows the great value he attaches to each "transferred" ruby. "Meaning" for him is obviously in the word itself.

It is small wonder then, that the speaker is tempted to read his speech verbatim. And when the occasion is a formal one, and the audience very large, he feels almost compelled to read it. Right here is a double pitfall: he may have an ineffective speech at the same time that he has a mediocre essay! A way out would be to make available to his audience (if he feels so pressed) a printed version of his message frankly considered as an essay and written in the best research form, documentation and all. Then he could feel free to retain the actual speaking time as a spontaneous and creative affair, both for himself as well as the listener.

Once the habit of reading or memorizing the manuscript verbatim has a hold on the speaker, it is very difficult to change. Part of the problem stems from the dichotomization of oral and written activity in the preparation stage. The student hopes to put the pieces together at the moment of public performance. But he has almost too much to think of then, perhaps running the risk of failure if he tried to extemporize then for the first time.

He must get "free of the ink" much earlier than that. Even the research phase of the preparation can involve speaking, for the student can put the book down for a few minutes, get up and talk orally, he can talk to a friend, and in this way evolve new ideas as well. The important consideration here is that his preparation should include skill in extemporizing, and circular communication, so that he is not working in a vacuum. This type of preparation staggers various skills and activities from the outset. To insure the formation of such preparatory habits, they may well be initiated in the speech class itself, considered somewhat as a laboratory session. This clearly differs from the traditional writing or speaking laboratory.

Such a method of preparation would also keep the speaker closer to the concept of communication as induced receptor creativity than of cut-and-dried transmission. Once the student appreciates this concept, he will have shed any unrealistic expectancy he may have about the result in the mind of the listener by

merely uttering certain set verbalisms. Gone too will be his embarrassment and feeling of futility when his expectancy was obviously not fulfilled. When he sheds the *ruby* in his concept of communication, he will also shed the *robot* in himself. And when he sheds both, he also reduces two causes of personal rubescence.

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A Telephone Survey of Religious Program Preferences Among Listeners and Viewers in Los Angeles

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This study attempts to supply an answer to a question often asked by religious speakers and laymen alike: How effective are religious radio and television programs in reaching people who do not usually attend religious services? The information gained by this study represents an important means in determining the value of present day programs of a religious nature — as far as the reactions of people living in the Los Angeles area are concerned.

I. *Introduction*

The writer, who is a minister, is interested in the question of the effectiveness of religious broadcasting. The type of "sponsor-studies" done in commercial radio and television have been used only to a very limited extent to determine the effectiveness of religious radio and television programs. By "effectiveness" this writer means the ability of a given religious program to reach people who would otherwise not be reached by religious groups. One cannot apply the same standards to religious programs which are used for commercial programs, their basic aims are much too different. However, it is not necessary to close one's eyes to the fact that there are ways of appraising the success or failure of religious programs.

How little information is available to the student of religious radio and television, especially as far as the audiences of these media is concerned, can be illustrated by the fact that a bibliography developed by Gertrude G. Broderick in 1956 for the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare lists only one book in this area. This book, "The Television-Radio Audience and Religion" (Everett C. Parker, David W. Barry, Dallas W. Smythe; Harper Brothers, Publishers, New York; 1955), has become somewhat of a "standard" in the area. In the preface, Oscar Katz, Director of Research at C.B.S. Television makes the following statement, which still holds true to a large degree:

> Considering the importance that radio and television have assumed in the American social and cultural scene, it is surprising that up to now no start has been made in describing the place of religious broadcasting in American life and analyzing its effect.

This fact is further illustrated by the absense of references to related studies or reports in the book by Parker, Barry, and Smythe. However, these men provide students of the area with much detailed information on the religious viewing and listening habits of one community, New Haven, Connecticut.

The present study is interested in

one phase of religious broadcasting research, namely the relationship of church attendance and viewing/listening habits, in the case of religious programs only. On pages 109 and 110 of the book cited above an interesting statement is made which has an important bearing on the present study:

> The conclusion is evident that most religious programs are conceived of as means whereby a religious in-group can make some contact with the multitude outside the fold. We shall see subsequently (Chapters 10 and 11) that for most of these programs, especially those with smaller audiences, achievement of this purpose is a highly optimistic assumption. The audience is actually composed of the faithful, rather than of potential converts. One is forced to the decision that few of the broadcasters have any clear picture of the audiences which their programs actually reach.

However, a detailed analysis or comparison of viewing/listening habits to church attendance was not carried through. The writer feels that a re-examination of many religious programs should be the result, if we consider carefully some of the data gathered in the study described on the following pages.

II. *Development of a questionnaire*

The writer developed a questionnaire which enabled trained students to obtain the pertinent information over the telephone, in a period of from three to four minutes per call. Data concerning listener's and viewer's preferences for religious radio and television programs in the Los Angeles area were thus gathered.

After several "dry-runs" and instruction periods under the supervision of the writer, the students were able to conduct the calls satisfactorily. Using data from the Los Angeles Telephone Company, a proportionate number of telephone numbers from each of the twenty Central exchanges was determined.

Eleven students made 1200 calls, of which 494 resulted in completed questionnaires. All calls were completed during the months of March and April, 1957. Students were instructed to terminate calls immediately if the subjects who were called declined to answer the questions. In case of busy signals students were instructed to call one of the alternate numbers of the same telephone exchange. One of the first questions asked of the subjects was concerned with their religious faith. Students reported little or no difficulty on this question from those who agreed to cooperate in answering the questionnaire. Only 12 questionnaires had to be discarded because of insufficient data concerning the faith of respondents.

The calls were made during the following periods:

9:30 — 11:30 a.m. (32.4% of all calls)
1:30 — 4:30 p.m. (50.9% of all calls)
6:30 — 7:30 p.m. (16.7% of all calls)

III. *Vital Statistics of the sample*

The total group of 494 was divided into religious and racial groups as indicated in Table I and Table II.

TABLE I
RELIGIOUS FAITHS WITHIN TOTAL SAMPLE OF 494

FAITH	NUMBER	PERCENTAGES
Protestants	349	70.6%
Catholic	128	25.8%
Jews	17	3.6%

TABLE II
RACIAL GROUPS WITHIN TOTAL SAMPLE OF 494

RACE	NUMBER	PERCENTAGES
White	329	66.7%
Negro	110	22.3%
Mexican, Spanish	48	9.6%
Oriental	7	1.4%

Of the total population in Los Angeles, according to the 1954 census figures, 34% were Protestants, 20% were Catholics and 5% were Jews. Furthermore, of the total population in Los Angeles, according to the 1950 Census (Total population being 1,970,358) 93.9% were White (Mexicans included), 4.2% were Negro, and 1.9% were Oriental.

Of the total groups of 494,(100%) 103 were men (21%) and 391 were women (79%).

IV. *Evaluation of the Study sample*

A considerable larger percentage of the subjects were women (79%) while men made up 21% of the total.

All racial groups were represented in somewhat the same order as they compose the Los Angeles population, although they were not represented by the same percentages as in the total population.

The size of the sample, 494 subjects, taken from such a varied group, should be sufficiently large to indicate existing trends, the Jewish group of 17 subjects, however, is probably too small to permit the drawing of any reliable conclusions on data secured from this group alone.

V. *Listener Preferences*

Only those subjects who had access to both radio and television sets were included in the sample of 494.

A: First it was determined which broadcasting medium, radio or television, subjects of this study preferred for religious programs.

Results:

The total group was almost equally divided as to its preferences of radio or television (39%). 21.2% had no preference. More Catholics preferred radio than any other group (45.4%). Protestants (51.3%), and Jews (47.1%) preferred television over radio.

B: Secondly it was determined how many people both listened to religious programs on radio, and watched them on television.

TABLE IV
NUMBER OF PEOPLE LISTENING TO RADIO AND VIEWING TELEVISION FOR RELIGIOUS PROGRAMS

FAITH	RADIO AND TELEVISION
349 Protestants	(164) 46.7%
128 Catholics	(56) 43.5%
17 Jews	(11) 64.7%
Total: 494	(231) 47.0%

Results:

These data indicate that almost half of the subjects of this study avail themselves of religious programs both on radio and television (47.5%). For the Jewish group 64.7% both listen to religious programs on radio and view them on television.

C: Thirdly, the average time spent listening to, and viewing religious programs each week was determined.

TABLE III
PREFERENCE FOR BROADCASTING MEDIA

FAITH	RADIO PREFERRED	TV PREFERRED	NO PREFERENCE
349 Protestants	(131) 37.6%	(179) 51.3%	(39) 11.1%
128 Catholics	(58) 45.4%	(8) 6.2%	(62) 48.4%
17 Jews	(5) 29.4%	(8) 47.1%	(4) 23.5%
Total: 494	(194) 39.3%	(195) 39.5%	(105) 21.2%

TABLE V

AVERAGE TIME SPENT IN LISTENING AND VIEWING RELIGIOUS PROGRAMS

FAITH	AVERAGE TIME (HOURS AND MINUTES)
Protestants	2 hours 14 minutes
Catholic	1 hour 28 minutes
Jews	1 hour 4 minutes

Results:

Combining all three faiths, an estimated average of 1 hour and 48 minutes, of both listening to and viewing of religious programs is done by the subjects of this study. Protestants included in this group did the greatest amount of listening and viewing: 2 hours 14 minutes (average per week).

D: Fourth, the listener's and viewer's preferences as to days for religious broadcasts, was determined.

Results:

The greatest number of Protestants preferring a day was 163, the day Sunday. However, each one of the week days was chosen by some Protestants. 76 had no preference as to any specific day of the week on which to listen to or view religious programs.

Catholic preferences as to days were very similar to those of the Protestant group. Sunday was the day most preferred. (Table VII)

The general pattern of preferences, observed in the case of both Catholics and Protestants also held true for the Jews. Sunday was the day most preferred. (Table VIII)

E: Fifth, an attempt was made to determine why people listen to religious programs and view them on television. Table IX shows answers given in response to a multiple choice question.

To members of all three faiths the speaker and the subject are most important, with the subject taking the lead for all three faiths. Interesting additional comments can be found in the following list of reasons given under the heading: "Others."

OTHERS

1. *Protestant:*
   raised religiously
   habit
   try to be good
   philosophy
   all should have time for the Lord
   like it (3)
   decent program
   recommended
   inclination
   attention to father
   comparison of prophesies
   same as going to church

TABLE VI

PROTESTANTS' PREFERENCES OF DAYS FOR RELIGIOUS BROADCASTS

MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY	SATURDAY	SUNDAY	ANY DAY
(27)	(17)	(16)	(14)	(19)	(17)	(163)	(76)
7.7%	4.9%	4.6%	4%	5.4%	4.9%	46.8%	21.7%

TABLE VII

CATHOLICS' PREFERENCES OF DAYS FOR RELIGIOUS BROADCASTS

MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY	SATURDAY	SUNDAY	ANY DAY
(8)	(6)	(6)	(7)	(5)	(9)	(61)	(26)
6.3%	4.7%	4.7%	5.4%	3.9%	7.1%	47.3%	20.4%

my wife listens
my duty to learn
try to learn what others believe
to get education of religious nature
just feel religious
good for subject matter
for entire program
my own church
no particular reason
Bread of Life
when I feel like it
dramatic presentation
get a lot out of it
start day off
variety of ministers
common sense
spiritual

2. *Catholic:*
habit
just like it all
different each time
interested in it
want to watch it
because it's Sunday and I think I ought to
no particular reason

3. *Jewish:*
all 3, varies
depends on program

F: Somewhat related to the last point was the next question, which was intended to determine if people would rather listen to a speaker of their own faith or to a speaker of another faith. (Table X)

Results:

A large number of people, 288, had no preferences when it came to the faith of the speaker. In conjunction with the preceding data this seems to indicate that the speaker as a person, and his subject, are most important to these listeners and viewers. Only 29, mostly Protestants, declared that they would rather listen to a speaker of another faith. Approximately $\frac{1}{3}$ of the Protestant and Jewish subjects preferred speakers of their own faith.

G: The final question is perhaps the most important: Who listens to and/or views religious programs on radio and television? (Table XI)

TABLE VIII
JEWS' PREFERENCES OF DAYS FOR RELIGIOUS BROADCASTS

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday	Any Day
(1)	(1)	0	0	(2)	0	(9)	(4)
5.9%	5.9%			11.8%		52.9%	23.5%

TABLE IX
REASONS FOR LISTENING AND VIEWING RELIGIOUS PROGRAMS

Reasons	349 Protestants	128 Catholics	17 Jews
Because of the speaker	(107) 30.7%	(49) 38.2%	(6) 35.2%
Because of the subject	(149) 42.7%	(60) 46.9%	(7) 41.2%
Because of the music	(60) 17.2%	(11) 8.6%	(2) 11.8%
Other answers	(33) 9.4%	(8) 6.3%	(2) 11.8%

TABLE X
PREFERENCES FOR RELIGIOUS SPEAKERS

Faith of Listeners	Same Faith	Other Faith	No Preference
349 Protestants	(113) 32.5%	(20) 5.7%	(216) 61.8%
128 Catholics	(58) 45.2%	(9) 7.3%	(61) 47.5%
17 Jews	(6) 35.4%	0	(11) 64.6%
Total: 494	(177) 35.8%	(29) 5.9%	(288) 58.3%

TABLE XI
CHURCH ATTENDANCE AND RADIO LISTENING

FAITH	LISTEN REGUARLY	LISTEN SOME	LISTEN SELDOM	NEVER	TOTAL
REGULAR CHURCH GOERS					
Protestant	(60) 31.4%	(91) 47.7%	(21) 11.0%	(9) 9%	(191)
Catholic	(12) 12.9%	(23) 24.7%	(16) 17.2%	(42) 45.2%	(93)
Jewish	0	(2) 50.0%	(2) 50.0%	0	(4)
OCCASIONAL CHURCH GOERS					
Protestant	(26) 23.9%	(37) 33.9%	(24) 22.0%	(22) 20.2%	(109)
Catholic	(10) 37.1%	(6) 22.2%	(3) 11.1%	(8) 29.6%	(27)
Jewish	0	(5) 41.7%	(3) 25%	(4) 33.3%	(12)
NON-CHURCH GOERS					
Protestant	(11) 22.5%	(8) 16.3%	(10) 20.4%	(20) 40.8%	(49)
Catholic	0	(3) 37.5%	0	(5) 62.5%	(8)
Jewish	0	(1) 100%	0	0	(1)
TOTALS					
349 Protestants	(97) 27.8%	(136) 38.9%	(55) 15.8%	(61) 17.5%	
128 Catholics	(22) 17.2%	(32) 25.0%	(19) 14.8%	(55) 43.0%	
17 Jews	0	(8) 47.1%	(5) 29.4%	(4) 23.5%	
TOTALS: 494	(119) 24.2%	(176) 35.6%	(79) 15.9%	(120) 24.3%	

1. Catholics made up the largest group attending church regularly with 72.7%; Protestants 54.6%; Jews 23.5%.

2. Jews made up the largest group attending services seldom with 70.6%; Protestants 31.1%; Catholics 21.1%.

3. Of those who never attend church, Protestants were the largest group with 14.4%; Catholics 6.2%; Jews 5.9%.

4. The largest group listening to religious programs on radio were those who listen sometimes (35.6%), while 24.2% listen regularly, and almost the same percentage never listen to religious programs on radio (24.3%).

5. Figures in TABLE XI indicate that a greater percentage of Protestants from among those who attend church regularly (Total: 191) listen to religious programs on radio either regularly, sometimes, or seldom, than from among those who attend church seldom (Total: 109), or those who never attend church (Total: 49), in that order.

Of regular attendants 91% listen regularly, sometimes, seldom.

Of those who attend seldom 79.8% listen regularly, sometimes, seldom.

Those who attend never have 59.2% listening regularly, sometimes, seldom.

6. Figures in TABLE XI indicate that Catholics who seldom attended church listened most to religious radio programs. Catholics who never attended church listened least.

Of regular attendants 54.8% listen regularly, sometimes, seldom.

Of those who attend seldom 70.4% listen regularly, sometimes, seldom.

Those who attend never have

37.5% listening regularly, sometimes, seldom.

7. Figures in TABLE XI indicate that of those Jews who never attend services 100% listen to religious programs sometimes. In the case of Jews who regularly attend services 100% either listen to religious programs sometimes or seldom. This figure represents eight Jews. 66.7% of the Jews seldom attending services listen to religious programs on radio either sometimes or seldom, this group also includes eight Jews. It is interesting to note that none of the Jewish respondents reported regular listening to religious radio programs.

8. The largest percentage of regular radio listeners for Protestants came from among those who attend church regularly (31.4%), for Catholics from those who attend church seldom (37.1%).

Results: (Data on church attendance are included as points 1, 2, 3, among the radio-listening results.)

1. Considering the viewing habits of the total group, the largest percentage was the group which sees religious programs sometimes, 31.2%, while 26.1% watch regularly, and 20.3% never watch religious programs on television.

2. Figures in TABLE XII indicate that a greater percentage of Protestants from among those who attend church regularly (Total: 191) view religious programs on television either regularly, sometimes, or seldom, than from among those who never attend church (Total: 49) or those who attend church seldom (Total: 109), in that order.

Of regular attendants 84.8% view regularly, sometimes, seldom.

Of those who attend seldom 75.2% view regularly, sometimes, seldom.

TABLE XII
CHURCH ATTENDANCE AND TV VIEWING

FAITH	VIEW REGULARLY	VIEW SOME	VIEW SELDOM	VIEW NEVER	TOTALS
REGULAR CHURCH GOERS					
Protestant	(61) 31.9%	(67) 35.1%	(34) 17.8%	(29) 15.2%	(191) 54.6%
Catholic	(26) 28.0%	(29) 31.1%	(16) 17.2%	(22) 22.7%	(93) 72.7%
Jewish	0	(1) 25.0%	(2) 50.0%	(1) 25.0%	(4) 23.5%
OCCASIONAL CHURCH GOERS					
Protestant	(21) 19.2%	(35) 32.1%	(26) 23.9%	(27) 24.8%	(109) 31.1%
Catholic	(9) 33.3%	(6) 22.3%	(4) 14.8%	(8) 29.6%	(27) 21.1%
Jewish	(3) 25.0%	(1) 8.3%	(8) 66.7%	0	(12) 70.6%
NON-CHURCH GOERS					
Protestant	(7) 14.3%	(12) 24.5%	(19) 38.8%	(11) 22.4%	(49) 14.4%
Catholic	(2) 12.5%	(3) 37.5%	(2) 25.0%	(2) 25.0%	(8) 6.2%
Jewish	(1) 100%	0	0	0	(1) 5.9%
TOTALS					
349 Protestants	(89) 25.5%	(114) 23.7%	(79) 22.6%	(67) 19.2%	
128 Catholics	(36) 28.1%	(38) 29.7%	(22) 17.2%	(32) 25.0%	
17 Jews	(4) 23.5%	(2) 11.8%	(10) 58.8%	(1) 5.9%	
TOTALS	(129) 26.1%	(154) 31.2%	(111) 22.4%	(100) 20.3%	

Of those who attend never 77.6% view regularly, sometimes, seldom.

3. Figures in TABLE XII indicate that a greater percentage of Catholics from among those who attend church regularly (Total: 93) view religious programs on television either regularly, sometimes, or seldom, than from among those who never attend church (Total: 8) or those who attend church seldom (Total: 27) in that order.

Of regular attendants 76.3% view regularly, sometimes, seldom.

Of those who attend seldom 71.4% view regularly, sometimes, seldom.

Of those who attend never 75.0% view regularly, sometimes, seldom.

Approximately the same percentage of people is being reached by religious television broadcasts in each Catholic attendance group.

4. Figures in TABLE XII indicate that of those Jews who never attend services, 100% view religious programs regularly, however, only one Jew is here represented by the 100%. In the case of the Jews who attend services seldom, 100% of the group (involving 12 Jews) viewed religious programs either regularly, sometimes, or seldom. 75.0%, or four Jews, who attend services regularly viewed religious programs either sometimes or seldom.

5. The largest percentage of regular television viewers for Protestants came from among those attending church regularly (31.9%), for Catholics from among those who attend church seldom (33.3%), and for Jews from among those who never attend services (1 Jew or 100%).

Conclusions

The author would like to quote portions of the conclusions drawn by Parker, Barry and Smythe, since these statements are further borne out by the present study:

> Perhaps the most persistent error on the part of religious broadcasters, an error that appears constantly in statements and literature, is the assumption that because the media are almost universal, they therefore deliver to any program an audience representative of universality. It is fair to say, on the basis of the evidence presented, that the clergyman who presents on the air a duplication of what he presents from the pulpit will have as his audience about the same group as those who will come to church to hear him . . . the audience even in numerical terms in a town such as New Haven does not seem to be larger than a fair-sized Sunday morning congregation.[1]

Both the selection of religious speakers and program types should be carefully considered on the basis of findings discussed in this study.

[1]Parker, Everett C., Barry, David W., Smythe, Dallas W., *The Television-Radio Audience and Religion,* Harper & Brothers, Publishers. New York. 1955.

Effects of Test Format on Listener Response*

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A report of the evaluation of various test forms commonly employed in speech reception measurement with a view toward determination of non-chance response set.

I. INTRODUCTION

In assessing the characteristics of a communication system, or evaluating the listening skill of subjects, it is necessary to provide a means whereby subjects can indicate their responses to auditory stimuli.

Much of the experimental work in the area of speech reception must be done by the writing of answers or by making other kinds of notations on test forms. Since the purposes of tests vary widely, there can be no generalization about a "most suitable" test format. The one valid observation that can be made about all test forms, however, is that the subject is required to make differentiations of some kind. The extent to which the experimenter is willing and desirous of structuring the subject's response may affect the general form of the test blank. A highly structured response results when the subject is merely required to make a check mark thereby indicating detection of some stimulus.

The True-False double column blank, the multiple-choice test, the blank fill-in test, and the rating scale format are recognized as familiar tools in speech reception work. There are advantages and disadvantages to each of these types of test forms. The precision in scoring afforded by the highly-structured test forms may channel the subject's responses in a somewhat less than desirable manner.

In view of the fact that several test forms are often necessary and desirable, there remains another generalization to be applied to them all: the alternatives possible for a subject to select are supposed to be equally available to him if he is operating purely by guesswork. That is, it is hoped that when the subject is undecided as to his response, his response to the possible submarginal cues present, or his performance in the absence of any cues at all, will not be dominated by some unassessed tendency to respond to the available alternatives in a manner peculiar to the arrangement of items on the test blank itself. Some attention has been given to the possibility of a non-chance distribution of guesses or unsure answers as attested by the development of various methods for off-setting guessing during the test. These are commented upon later.

This report is confined to some considerations of subject reactions to the physical setup of answer sheets for several kinds of test blanks in current use in speech reception investigations.

The test forms examined include:

1. The two-alternative type of test, representing paired comparison, true-false, greater-less, etc., responses.
2. The multiple-choice test, wherein one choice is to be made from seven, and indicated by placing a check in a box alongside the alternative selected.
3. Two types of multiple-choice cross-out tests, one presenting from 2 to 14 items arrayed horizontally, the second presenting from 2 to 14 items arrayed vertically.

4. A modified rating-scale blank in which 75 choices are made of numbers ranging from 2 to 14.
5. A seven-point rating scale blank in which the subject indicates by a cross his choice of one of the seven positions in horizontal array.

The questions asked in this investigation are simple, but might be of considerable interest to workers employing these types of answer sheets.

If a subject is given a blank test form to fill out, does he, in the case of two alternatives, consistently choose one over the other? Is there something inherently attractive about a particular location when a number of alternatives are available that causes selection of that location to occur in a nonchance fashion? If so, the possibility exists that a different physical form of the same test blank may minimize this tendency and hence be more desirable. Subjects participating in this experiment received no auditory stimuli; they were simply asked to make choices required by the particular answer sheet at hand. In a sense, then, their evaluations were made in a manner similar to that of subjects actually taking a test without sufficient cues to influence their choice of answers. Any inherent tendencies to pattern responses as a result of test format should operate at maximum strength in this situation.

Investigators show differing degrees of concern over the effects of guessing in a test. Davis (1) says that if examinees who are not able to select the correct answer to an item were to guess blindly among all the choices, the incorrect choices would be made by insignificantly different proportions of examinees. He further states that very few examinees actually guess blindly; they may act more on the basis of misinformation or poor elimination of incorrect choices. Ebel (2) asserts that if a test is properly constructed the possibility of making a good score by guessing would be too small to concern the test constructor. In fact, Traxler (3) has constructed a formula that discounts wrong answers as being incorrect guesses. In this formula the number of wrong items is divided by the number of choices per item minus 1. This result is then subtracted from the total number of items right.

Guilford (4) states that for items having a limited number of alternative responses, there must be a correction in this proportion to make allowances for chance success. He has developed a table of correct proportions for different numbers of alternatives varying from 2 to 8. Johnson (5) maintains that, for any group which responds to any item in complete ignorance of the correct answer, a probability formula can be developed to indicate the number of subjects who would be expected to mark the correct answer by chance.

Krueger (6) had subjects guess at possible true or false answers in terms of 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 100, 150, 200, 300, and 500 serially numbered lines. It was found that chance guessing would frequently yield very high and very low scores in short tests (*i.e.*, those with less than 60 items). Above 60 items there was no definite trend. The longer the test, the more the tendency for right-wrong items to balance out, thus eliminating the chance of high scores through guessing.

Lee and Symonds (7) report the results of an experiment in which students working with unfamiliar materials gave practically the same number of true and false responses. The hypothesis that the color of the test form might influence scores was tested by Michael and Jones (8). These findings indicate that the color of paper upon which objective achievement tests have been mimeographed does not significantly influence the average number of correct responses of examinees.

Cronbach (9) discusses "response sets" and their effects on the validity of tests. When a person takes an objective test, he may bring to the test a number of test-taking habits

which could affect his score. Such response "sets" become more influential as the test items become difficult or ambiguous. Cronbach states that when his students have been asked to analyze their own test data, such analyses have never failed to disclose individual patterns of response, statistically consistent from item to item. The only form of fixed-alternative test found to be free from the subjects' response "set" was the multiple-choice form. Attention should be called to the fact here that the *subject*, not the test form itself, was under scrutiny, and this conclusion cannot be extended *de facto* to cover the general case of the test form itself.

Unpublished data collected by Rapaport and Berg (10) on responses to one of four options when no question was stated, indicates that over 60% of the subjects chose the third position. Cronbach (11) listed response "sets" as learned "work-methods" and considered them comparable to constant errors in psychological studies. He felt that the best method of studying response "sets" was to employ nonsense items, where subjects had no knowledge of the content.

Lorge (12) reported a positive correlation between the number and position of items checked on three personality tests (Strong, Thorndike, and Bernreuter), each of which was administered to a different experimental group. Similarly, Philip (13) found that stimuli at the ends of scales were judged correctly more often than others.

There is at present a bibliographic survey being conducted by the Educational Testing Service at Princeton (14) to compile the hitherto scattered references on effects of chance behavior on test scores.

II. EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

A. General Plan

The purpose of this experiment was to determine the patterns if any, which emerge from a series of random answer selections on several different kinds of blank test forms. It is to be presumed that such a pattern of response, if existent, would in some way be confounded with a subject's *bona fide* responses to some test stimuli if he were operating at or close to the cutoff point of stimulus reception. The obvious inference, of course, is that such a tendency might be more pronounced with one form of test than with another, and hence might make some format less attractive or reliable than another for use in testing.

The test forms investigated were:

1. The two-alternative checking test.
2. The seven-place multiple-choice checking test.
3. Multiple-choice cross-out tests.
   a. Horizontal array, 2 to 14 items.
   b. Vertical array, 2 to 14 items.
4. The rating-scale blank, requiring choice of a number between 2 and 14.
5. The rating-scale blank in which the subject indicates by a cross-out one of seven positions in horizontal array.

B. Instructions

The instructions for all test sessions and for all test blanks were the same: "Check, cross out, or indicate by number the appropriate item called for by this test blank. We would like to have you pretend that you are taking a test, although you will not hear any test stimuli. Simply mark the blank as though you *were* taking a test."

No further information was given except to reaffirm the number of items to be indicated. It was hoped that any latent tendencies toward patterning would come to light inasmuch as the subjects had complete freedom to use any rationale they chose in performing the task.

C. Subjects

Subjects were drawn from a speech class of 62 college students ranging from sophomore to senior standing at the Ohio State University. Since the various segments of this investigation took place over a period of several weeks, some of the test forms were marked by less than the entire experimental samples due to absences.

The number of students participating in any one evaluation is mentioned in the discussion of results. All were acquainted with similar test forms through college examinations taken prior to these tests. Test sessions were monitored in order to prevent subjects from copying.

III. TEST FORMS AND RESULTS

As mentioned previously, responses to types of test forms were studied. The results will be reported in terms of each particular test form that was evaluated.

1. *The two-alternative checking test.*

This test form consisted of two columns of parallel boxes, i.e., ☐☐. In all, there was a total of twenty-five such pairings.

Name
Date
S/N Ratio
Code
1. ☐ ☐
2. ☐ ☐

Sixty-two subjects, produced the distribution presented in Table 1. Analyses indicate non-chance response for only the first two items, the data being processed item by item, using the chi-square test. For a difference significant at the .01 level of confidence (1 df) a frequency of 39 is necessary in either of the columns.

The results displayed in Table 1 are to be interpreted only as a comment on the nature of the two-place checking form as a test instrument, not on the behavior of the individual subjects who marked the blanks. It is a possibility, although a very weak probability, that such a distribution could be generated by subjects marking their blanks in a highly nonchance fashion, i.e., by the use of extended runs in the same column, with the resultant distribution of Table 1 being accomplished by the occurrence throughout the test of a propitious balancing of subjects' behavior between columns. To test this possibility, the average number of consecutive like selections in either column was computed as well as the average number of selections in each run. A perfect chance distribution would give an even balance between columns in respect to number of runs and length of runs. The data reveal that subjects made a mean number of 8.85 runs in the first column, 7.82 runs in the second. The number of items per run was 1.77 for the first column, 1.46 for the second. The balance, then, was very nearly reached with only a slight loading for the first column.

TABLE 1. DISTRIBUTIONS OF ANSWERS OF 62 SUBJECTS ON THE TWO-PLACE ANSWER SHEET (Chi-square Test)

Item	Column 1st	Column 2nd	Sig.	Item	Column 1st	Column 2nd	Sig.
1	52	10	.01	13	37	25	non
2	20	42	.01	14	30	32	non
3	33	29	non	15	30	32	non
4	34	28	non	16	26	36	non
5	38	24	non	17	36	26	non
6	37	25	non	18	29	33	non
7	33	29	non	19	38	24	non
8	30	32	non	20	32	30	non
9	35	27	non	21	32	30	non
10	36	26	non	22	37	25	non
11	38	24	non	23	37	25	non
12	34	28	non	24	29	33	non
				25	38	24	non

TABLE II. CHI-SQUARE TESTS ON DISTRIBUTION OF CHOICES ON SEVEN ALTERNATIVES OF A MULTIPLE-CHOICE CHECKING FORM

Test Item	df	Chi-square	p level exceeded
1	6	24.25	.01
2	6	17.25	.01
3	6	10.75	.10
4	6	15.50	.02
5	6	11.00	.10
6	6	14.00	.05
7	6	8.65	.20
8	6	5.75	.50
9	6	9.13	.20
10	6	5.75	.50
11	6	7.50	.30
12	6	6.00	.50
13	6	5.15	.50

2. *Multiple-choice checking test.*

This test form consisted of a series of 7 boxes which preceded an individual test word. One series of test boxes appeared for each test item.

☐ Alfa
☐ Fox
☐ Foxtrot
☐ Nectar
☐ Oscar
☐ Quebec
☐ Victor

In all, there was a total of 13 of the 7-box groups. Subjects were instructed to select one of the seven alternatives provided for each of the 13 test items. Choice was made by marking an (X) in the particular box associated with seven phonetic alphabet words which were used as test responses. No auditory stimuli were presented, and the task was accomplished according to any criteria or patterning the subject wished to adopt. Fifty-six of the original population of subjects constituted the test group.

The patterns of selection were tested by the chi-square statistic. Table II gives the results of these chi-square tests.

Nonchance distribution of selections for the first two test items indicates the possibility that some patterning tendency may be confounded with response to auditory stimuli, when this type of test form is employed, particularly if a threshold level of presentation is involved in the testing. Perhaps, as in the case of the two-place checking test, the first two items might profitably be considered as "warm-ups" and deleted from the data processing.

3. *Multiple-choice cross-out tests, horizontal and vertical arrays.*

There are two types of such test forms. The first type, the horizontal array consisted of a horizontal listing of 6 to 9 words, i.e., two tube tomb tune tour toot tooth toothe twos. The second test form consisted of a vertical array of the same list of words. There were 50 rows or columns in each of the two arrays, i.e.,

Two
Tube
Tomb
Tune
Tour
Toot
Tooth
Toothe
Twos

These have been employed with certain word-identification studies in air-traffic control. In their usual usage, one word, contained among the alternatives in each test item, is presented auditorily, and the listen-

er's task is to cross out the stimulus word from those listed. While it is often assumed that test items with only two choices available are likely to yield higher scores on the basis of chance alone than items containing up to 14 choices, the selection may be complicated still further if subjects tend to show patterning of response purely as a function of the number and arrangement of alternatives.

To investigate the possible existence of such patterning, 61 subjects were asked to cross out one word from each of the numbered groups of horizontally arrayed words on the test form. One week later 59 of the subjects performed a like task on test forms which presented the same alternatives in vertical array. Because of the remarkable similarity of response to these two forms, the results for each type were compared according to the number of alternatives available for choice.

Two analyses were performed for all arrays up to seven choices, since the theoretical cell frequencies for eight choices and beyond would require collapsing at the extremes of the distributions thus giving less useful results. Both analyses utilized the chi-square statistic, the first testing the observed distributions against an *a priori* assumption of equal cell frequencies, the second comparing the two curves for goodness of fit by a 2 x k technique (15) as given by the formula:

$$X^2 = \frac{N^2}{At\ Bt}\left(\frac{B^2i}{Ai + Bi} - \frac{B^2t}{At + Bt}\right)$$

(a) *Two Alternatives*

Four test items provided opportunity for choosing between two alternatives. The two-choice items, like those containing more alternatives, were randomly ordered as to appearance in the test. It was found that regardless of array, the second alternative was favored.

With the *a priori* assumption of equal chance frequencies, the chi-square value was 7.21 for the horizontal and 10.5 for the vertical arrays. Both exceeded the .01 level thereby indicating that the observed frequencies did not result from chance. The chi-square value for goodness of fit equalled .20, which indicates that in only one time out of five would a chance distribution fit one of the curves closer to the other. Thus, it may be observed that the two choices are not equally selected and that no difference is shown in the performance on either array.

(b) *Three Alternatives*

When three items were available once again a nonchance distribution of choices exceeding the .01 level was shown. The chi-square results were 10.19 (2 df) for the horizontal, and 13.84 for the vertical displays. The goodness of fit test shows a chi-square value of 2.44 and a corresponding probability level of .30, indicating that in only three times out of 10 would a chance distribution result in a better fit to either of the curves than the other of the two involved here. The same conclusion reached above with the two-alternative items is advanced for those with three alternatives, namely, that the choices are not equally distributed among the available categories and that there is no significant difference between the shapes of the distributions for the two arrays.

(c) *Four Alternatives*

There were five instances of four-choice items displayed horizontally and vertically.

The horizontal array shows no difference from a chance distribution (chi-square = 3.32, 3 df); however, the vertical arrangement was significantly different (chi-square = 13.88, (3 df) at the .01 level. Goodness of fit value was 1.88, with the probability level of .50 (3 df) allowing the conclusion that the two distributions did not differ significantly from each other.

(d) *Five Alternatives*

Six of this kind of test item were judged in each array. Neither the horizontal nor vertical formats pro-

duced distributions different from equiprobable chance ordering. The horizontal array chi-square value was 5.36, the vertical, 7.69, both falling short of the 13.27 necessary for significance at the .01 level. For goodness of fit test the chi-square result was 4.24 ($p = .50$, 4 df), indicating that the two curves did not differ from each other.

(e) *Six Alternatives*

Fifteen occurrences of items of this length were marked on each test by each subject. The horizontal array chi-square value was 6.80; the vertical, 8.00. Since neither of these values was significant at the .01 level of confidence (15.09, 5 df), neither is considered different from a chance distribution. The goodness of fit test produced a *p* level of .98, as determined by the chi-square of 0.64 (5 df).

(f) *Seven Alternatives*

Seven such items were presented both horizontally and vertically. As in the five- and six-choice items previously considered, responses to neither the horizontal nor vertical display differed from chance ordering when tested against theoretical frequencies of equal numbers of selections for each of the seven choices. The respective chi-square array values were 13.18 for horizontal and 10.17 for vertical, both short of the 16.81 required for significance at the .01 level. Similar nonsignificant results were obtained from the goodness of fit test with a chi-square value of 2.88, which, the 4 degrees of freedom necessitated by the collapsing distribution extreme, classified the curves as non-significantly different from each other at the .60 level.

(g) *Eight Alternatives*

Since multiple-choice items containing from nine to 14 alternatives find little or no application in routine testing, the results from such lengthy items are shown in Table III with their appropriate chi-square values and levels of significance when tested against equiprobable frequencies for each alternative.

By way of general observation regarding the horizontally and vertically arrayed multiple-choice items, it may be said that a definite response set is present when more than eight alternatives are presented in a test item. In this event, it is fairly obvious that equal attention is not given to all the choices listed by the subject, whereas, at the other end of the scale, the two- and three-choice items are likewise subject to nonchance treatment. The optimum operating range, then, would seem to involve from four to eight alternatives in any one test item. Items offering from four to eight alternatives show a more or less bell-shaped distribution. In general, it may be said that the type of array makes no difference, that is, either the horizontal or vertical layout functions

TABLE III. CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR RESPONSES TO MULTIPLE-CHOICE ITEMS CONTAINING FROM NINE TO FOURTEEN ALTERNATIVES

No. Choices	No. Items	df	X^2 Value	
			Horizontal	Vertical
9	10	8	21.09*	16.87**
10	5	9	27.89*	20.49**
11	1	10	29.10*	19.08**
12	5	Chi square tests not performed		
13	2	Chi square tests not performed		
14	1	Chi square tests not performed		

*Significant at the .01 level
**Significant at the .05 level

equally well.

4. *Numerical Selection and Seven-point Scale*

(a) *Numerical Selection*

Another type of test format which may be employed in place of the linear rating scale is that one involving numerical selection. Whereas the former actually displays a line of given length divided into a number of intervals, the latter implies such a scale by furnishing a number with the test items. The subject rates or selects the test stimuli by assigning a number limited in its upper range by the value indicated for the item. Thus, a 10 would allow the subject to assign ratings from 1 to 10 for the stimulus received.

This type test format included items displayed in this manner;

1. (9) 2. (6) ... 75. (6)

(In this test form. the numbers employed were the same as in No. 3-Multiple-Choice Cross Out Tests — Horizontal and Vertical Arrays).

In this segment of the investigation, 52 of the original student group indicated their numerical preferences for 75 test items without receiving any auditory stimuli. It will be seen, from an examination of Table IV that the pattern of selections is much more given to response set than the pattern encountered with the actual physical scale. When confronted with a two-point range, subjects favored the first alternative overwhelmingly, a reversal of their behavior with both the horizontal and vertical displays. With the exception of the 7-point range, all ratings showed non-chance distributions. It is also of interest to note that the choices made on items providing a range of 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14 points showed definite displacement toward the high end of the scale. Subjects were inclined to select more frequently the next-to-the last number of the range.

No chi-squares were computed for the 11-, 12-, 13,- and 14-point scales because of the requirement of theoretical chi-square values.

TABLE IV. CHI-SQUARE VALUES FOR VARIOUS CHOICES ON NUMERICAL SCALES

SCALE	CHI-SQUARE	P-LEVEL
2	6.64	.01
3	19.58	.01
4	16.30	.01
5	15.52	.01
6	29.55	.01
7	3.46	Non-sig.
8	24.61	.01
9	29.67	.01
10	55.57	.01

(b) *Seven-Point Scale*

Because of apparent lack of response "set" associated with seven alternatives, this particular value was selected for further investigation. A test blank containing 40 horizontally displayed scales of seven equal intervals was distributed to 46 of the original group of college students with instructions to select one interval for each test item by circling a number on the scale.

The pattern of choice indicated chance selection of each of the seven available intervals. The frequencies of selections in each interval, tested with chi-square against an *a priori* assumption of equal distribution, yielded a non-significant .71. From these data, as well as those gathered from preceding formats, it must be concluded that the seven-point range of interval selection shows the least amount of response "set."

E. Summary

An attempt was made to assess the effect of test format on subject responses. A total of sixty-two college students participated as subjects. They were presented with five different types of test blanks and were asked to mark them as though they were actually taking a test.

No auditory stimuli were introduced during any of the experimental sessions. Statistical analyses were

made of the subjects responses. The test formats examined were (1) the two alternative type, (2) the multiple-choice, with a range of seven, (3) the multiple-choice type with items ranging from 2 to 14 displayed horizontally and then vertically, (4) a modified rating scale type in which 75 choices were made of numbers ranging from 2-14, and (5) a seven-point rating scale.

F. Conclusions

On the basis of experimental evidence presented it is concluded that:

1. The first two items of a two-alternative test (e.g., true-false) showed nonchance response "set." The remaining items showed a chance distribution of selections.
2. When the digit 1 or 2 is used to indicate the choice between two alternatives, the digit 1 is used significantly more often than 2.
3. Neither two- nor three-alternative cross-out items were conducive to a chance distribution of selections.
4. Four-, five-, six-, seven-, and eight-alternative crossout items showed a chance distribution of selections, with horizontal and vertical arrays equally effective.
5. With the numerical selection method, only the range of seven points offered chance distributions. Ranges of 5, 6, and 8 through 14 showed distributions of selections displaced toward the high end of the scale.
6. The seven-point range laid out horizontally on a physical scale produced a chance distribution of interval selections.
7. The distribution of selections accomplished by the numerical entry method and the cross-out method were significantly different for the two- and three- alternative items, no different for the two methods for items offering four to seven alternatives.
8. Seven-alternative items, with available choices laid out in vertical columns and indicated by checking boxes placed in front of the choices, produced a chance distribution of selections.

*This study was done under contract No. AF 19(604)-1577 with the Operational Applications Laboratory, Air Force Cambridge Research Center, Bolling Air Force Base, Washington 25, D. C. It is designated as Technical Note AFCRC TN-56-59. It is ASTIA Document AD-98821.

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Discussion and Debate In the Space Age

A. Craig Baird
State University of Iowa

College instruction in this space age calls for strong support of courses in discussion and debate. (From a speech given before an intercollegiate forensics conference at the State University of Iowa, December 6, 1958.)

Discussion and debate (I use the terms as one) during its long history, have been both praised and condemned. In the Athens of Plato and Aristotle, in medieval, colonial and later colleges and universities this art has been supported as the handmaid of truth or rejected as "sophism institutionalized." Whether in the medieval syllogistic disputations, eighteenth and nineteenth century literary societies, or in the twentieth century college classrooms discussion has had its educational friends or foes.

Four years ago, for example, many administrators condemned college students who would debate the admission of Red China to the United Nations. Some state boards of education and the West Point Academy authorities banned this proposition for debate. Thus the issue of free speech as a necessary basis of discussion again came under attack.

In 1958, along with most other college subjects, debate and discussion have again come in for sharp examination.

The space age of Sputniks and Explorers after October 5, 1957 has been responsible for the American educational turmoil. No topic has generated so much speech-making and writing during the past eighteen months as has that of American lower and higher education. As the space vehicles have whirled in orbit or sometimes have sputtered at Cape Canaveral, we Americans have put on sackcloth. To change the figure, we have made education a whipping post or a scapegoat. College presidents, militarists, politicians, scientists, technical educators, and even high school and college students have turned the spot light on every detail of our school and college training.

Education, as historian Arthur Bestor of the University of Illinois and many others have said over and over, is not for life adjustment. Rather it is for hard intellectual exercise. College students, we are told, have been soft toward scholarship, but strong toward social divertissements and good jobs. The goal, we are assured, has been that of a junior executive, or a junior executive's wife. According to these critics, the curriculum is shot through and through with all sorts of dilettante courses, including flower arrangement and flycasting. Faculty lecturers mostly hand out content and test by multiple choice examinations.

The results, so it is claimed, are national anti-intellectualism. Stringfellow Barr's novel, *Purely Academic*, represents this picture of low level colleges. The graduates are alleged to be an army of half-educated B.S. and A.B.'s. They are conformists, addicts of peak hour television, next year's model automobiles, oblivious of the vast conflicts about them. This indictment, I admit, is vastly overdrawn. But the deficiencies are obviously there.

What has been the proposed remedy? More scholarships, higher teacher salaries, more science, mathematics, foreign languages, with here and there concessions to history and literature.

The issue is, should debate and

discussion give place in the curriculum to more important studies for the degree? Is discussion of great issues a subject of sufficient importance to be urged upon all Phi Beta Kappas or *magne cum laudes?*

My answer is affirmative. Frankly, I am prejudiced in favor of this ancient-modern learning by dialetic and controversy. In support of my prejudices, may I quote the recent speeches of three national leaders: Dr. James B. Conant, former president of Harvard, spoke before the National Education Association, at Philadelphia, on July 3, 1958 on the topic, "the role of education after high school." Said Dr. Conant after analyzing the curriculum, "Above all, it is vital that the spirit of the academic community be such as to foster an interest in current, social, economic, and political problems, and a zest for discussion and debate." Senator James William Fulbright, in the Senate on August 21, 1958, spoke on the topic of "American life, its order of values." He demanded that we "test the slogans and shibboleths by free and honest discussion." Edmund Muskie, of Maine, now Senator elect, addressing the Speech Convention in Boston, on August 28, 1957, when he was still governor of Maine, said that "it is our unescapable conclusion that these collective judgments (of the American People) cannot reflect wisdom, responsibility and foresight, unless they are subject to the critical analysis and evaluation which are possible only through the process of debate."

My thesis then, to repeat, is that discussion or debate provides those learning experiences most valid for higher education in the second half of the twentieth century. Debating deserves a central place in the curriculum. Why?

What may we again ask, are these goals of collegiate education? Have the severe education upheavals of the past year modified importantly these aims? I see no change or need for change except for further emphasis. Out of the welter of words and formulas to meet the needs of this thermonuclear age, emerge these conclusions: (1) higher education more than ever must mean training in decision-making. (2) Colleges must more effectively train students in analysis of problems; to apply logic, value judgments and sound ethical standards to all problems, and to communicate effectively this knowledge and understanding. These are the chief marks and general pattern of undergraduate preprofessional education that concern general education through knowledge, understanding, skills and applications.

What of the significance of these things for discussants and teachers of such subject?

EDUCATION AND DISCUSSION AS DECISION-MAKING

First, liberal or general education is decision-making. The educated man or woman's role, as always, has been that of decision-making. Of all people he or she should see most clearly the proper road and point the way. He is not only to absorb knowledge but to apply it. He is to contemplate, to discuss with himself and others, but to translate his discussion into action.

Such concept of education Thomas Huxley had in mind when he concluded one of his lectures on education with the statement that "The end of life is not knowledge, but action."

Ralph Waldo Emerson, too, declared that, "Action is with the scholar subordinate, but it is essential. Without it he is not yet a man. Without it, thought cannot ripen into truth."

Why this emphasis on education as decision-making? Especially in this day of mounting issues, more than ever, these things cannot be shuffled off. As Professor Ralph Perry, of Harvard, put it, "For each problem comes a moment of decision. The choice must be made before it is too late. Otherwise all is meaningless." As we have sped up time, so

have we sped up the need for handling these snowballing problems. Otherwise, as the philosophers say, all is meaningless. Otherwise history passes us by to be manipulated by force or chance.

How is it with you debaters? You have this morning through your parliamentary procedure called for legislation to terminate your two days of debating. In discussion you have likewise attempted to follow through the orderly procedures to your preferred solution. Because of your limited time you may have been hasty, but you have at least applied a sound educational method of dealing with the case. *Discussion and debates is about the only discipline on the campus, the function of which is to apply the content courses of history, economics, and the rest to data and principles that aim at specific political and social action.*

EDUCATION AND ANALYSIS

Whether education is wise decision-making will obviously depend on the validity of the process by which such conclusions are arrived at. Theodore Roosevelt, for example, was first and last a man of action. Later biographers and historians have suggested that in instances his impulsive leadership would have had more long range effectiveness if more deliberations had tempered his action steps.

Deliberative excellence begins with analysis of the problem — that is the breaking of it into its essential issues and propositions. Knowledge, we agree, is in itself not education. It is the framing of underlying questions to be answered that reflects genuine thinking and understanding of the problem.

What of the debater's methodology at this point? Your answer is obvious: "Our business is to analyze problems. We don't always do a satisfactory job, but at least we know how to go about it. We are familiar with the stock issues of need, desirability, and practicability. But we push far beyond that formula and come up with something that approaches genuine division and questions that are answerable."

Thus the debaters are in possession of the ancient yet modern analytical method suggested and illustrated by Quintilian in his doctrine of the *statis* or *status*. You debaters through your searching questions cut across economic or other partial approaches so that you view problems more comprehensively as economic, political, and even philosophical and moral.

Cannot, then the undergraduate colleges profit more directly by systematic study of important questions through such systematic analysis? Dean Mason Ladd of the Iowa Law School has told us that perhaps the most important skill learned by undergraduate debaters is their ability to analyze. In the law school analysis of cases, those with such training are presumably more effective than others.

Such skills, we assume, are indispensable not only for lawyers, but for all mature leaders. *Thus we invite liberal or general colleges to direct undergraduates into courses of discussion-debate where such framing of essential issues is practiced first and last.*

EDUCATION, DISCUSSION AND CRITICAL THINKING

Following the framing of the questions, are the arguments and evidence that supply answers; analysis and synthesis. The impartial, relevant, and basic questions may be answered either affirmatively or negatively. In any case we have adhered to critical thinking.

College education has always insisted that its primary aim is to produce thinkers. As Emerson said in his talk to the Phi Beta Kappas, which I quoted above, "In his right estate he (the scholar) is man thinking." Every college teacher claims that he is teaching the art of thinking. Granted that this is so, there are degrees of thinking and many modes of mental creativeness.

But such process can no doubt be

facilitated by systematic methods of developing dependable judgments. What does critical thinking, broken down into its tangible equivalents, mean? It calls for ability to test facts, draw valid inferences, weigh analogies, authorities, generalizations, cause and effect relations, and deductive reasoning.

How fares debate and discussion in such logical pattern? As every debater knows, the procedure is strangely familiar. The listing of items covered by critical thinking sounds like the familiar chapters out of any argumentation text. Your debater is weighing facts, comparing, generalizing, refuting fallacies, and otherwise following the processes of reasoning suggested by ancient and recent logicians and rhetoricians.

We agree that debaters, like other evolving thinkers, often jump the track and come off not too well in handling these logical intricacies. The line of straight thinking is often pretty askew. At least the debater is able to expose the pseudo-appeals of bad propagandists and is clearly on the side of reflective rather than emotional thinking.

Such courses in discussion and debate, we believe, should therefore be more broadly required or encouraged in undergraduate offerings.*

EDUCATION, ETHICS, AND VALUE JUDGMENTS

In addition to the student's ability in analysis and straight thinking is his sense of values. What assurance have we that his judgments, the outcome of his choices, are "good?" Who is to say what are the right ones? Who is to say what is the best course — even though the complete evidence and arguments have been mustered? Mere dissent is not an automatic guarantee of its worth. We can never be sure about these things.

But they are to be settled according to certain standards and these standards are to be framed as ethical judgments.

This view of decision-making means that educated men and women are to have character. As Aristotle has it, "We yield a more complete and ready credence to a person of high character." And what is "high character"? Aristotle tells us (*Rhetoric*, Book I) that it means three things: intellectual integrity, social good will, and moral motive.

The purpose of college is to promote these ethical ends. Intellectual integrity means honesty in representing facts and inferences and honesty of conviction. Educated people are sincere. They do not lie or distort. Secondly, the ethical end demands of the educated person good will — sensitivity to the needs, wants and interests of others. Good will means a genuine commitment to promote such social purposes. Thirdly, this ethical aim is to govern all judgments by moral values. These grow out of social sensitivity and call for decisions that support social progress and enhance individual worth. This high character means more than courage and temperance. It means moral virtue. It means the possession of the ideals of truth and of the spiritual order.

These ethical principles are at the bottom of our philosophy of argumentation, discussion, and debate. As instructors and students at this point, we fall short and even differ among ourselves. Some debaters believe, for example, that their job is to argue anything that will get by with a judge. Most others of us, I am glad to report, have a more deeply rooted intellectual conscience. We are ready to adopt a Hippocratic oath of our duty to speak only the truth. Our choice and decisions as debaters then are to be governed by value judgments as well as by consistency of major and minor premises and conclusions. At this point you discus-

*We are not here ignoring college courses in logic. We do suggest that discussions consist of applied logic — logic not as an end but as a means of valid analysis and solution of major economic, social, political problems.

sants with your ethical outlook and the college are as one. Both you and your college aim to keep uppermost and apply these value judgments to all problems.

EDUCATION, DISCUSSION AND COMMUNICATION

Finally the debater-discussant is a communicator. Since October 5, 1957, the old question concerning the relation of education to communication is more important than ever. As I stated earlier, the weight of college instruction has to do with information, knowledge, understanding. But these content courses though they provide insight mean little to the student or his world until they are personally interpreted. These materials continue passive and unappropriated until they are transformed through your intellectual and emotional personality. Communication is the catalyst by which the subject matter is assimilated and recreated. John Dewey's old slogan was that "we learn by doing." To him learning meant thinking, speaking and writing, as evolving into belief and behavior. The test of learning is belief and behavior.

Thus the debater, like other campus students of speech, trains in the art of using his voice, bodily activity, and speaking personality, to communicate his language to his audience under circular response conditions. Or similarly he reacts through his written expression. Through such skills, in our opinion, can college education best draw out the resources of the student and result in genuine learning.

IN CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we visualize that the undergraduate colleges that have not done so, are to organize a year course on the discussion of great issues. It should be offered to, or required of, juniors or seniors. It should focus on the six or seven recurrent problems of the times. Lecturing would be absent and replaced by student discussions. The speaking and writing would be accompanied by full study of the theory of the art. Some would fail, but the hardy would survive. They in turn would vindicate the college as the seat of genuine intellectual and moral leadership. Such leadership would be competent to meet the demands of this space age.

IT'S MORE FUN TO KNOW

Franklin H. Knower
The Ohio State University

1. Is it a good idea to love your enemy in argument?

   YES, if speaking to an educated audience!

   See Hovland, Lumsdaine, and Sheffield. *Experiments on Mass Communication*, p. 214. When the speaker dealt with both sides of the argument, more educated members of his audience shifted in the desired direction than when he discussed only his own side of the argument.

2. Is climax always the best order of arrangement of ideas in a talk?

   NO!

   See Sponberg, *A Study of the Relative Effectiveness of Climax and Anti-Climax Order in an Argumentative Speech. Speech Monographs* 1946, 13, p. 44. "The anti-climax order effected significantly greater retention of the contents of the entire speech."

3. Are good writers necessarily good speakers?

   NO!

   See Becker, Dallinger. Crosby and Gold. *Communication Skills*. The State University of Iowa, 1958, p. 21. Although the correlation is present in a statistically measurable amount, it is so small (+.22) there is little prospect that one could predict skill in one of these forms of communication from measurement of the other form.

4. Can a good speech critic judge comparative influences of speakers on an audience?

   YES!

   See Knower, Phillips, and Koeppel: Studies in Listening to Informative Speaking. *Jr. of Abn. and Soc. Psy.* 1945, 40. p. 36. Speakers judged as good speakers communicated over seven more bits of information in a ten minute talk than did speakers judged as poor speakers. This difference was statistically significant at a high level of confidence.

BOOKS: New Developments in Business and Industrial Communication

Raymond S. Ross
Wayne State University

Editor's Note: This review article is the third of a new series to appear in this Journal. The author changes with each issue. Each article reveals several books as they relate to a specified area. Interested contributors should contact the Editor.

Whatever the differences in outlook between the social scientist and the business man, their collaboration in industrial research has been one of the most promising developments of recent years. In the area of communications, this union of theory and practice has produced new insights into one of management's most challenging problems.

It has often been argued that the scientist is interested in truth for its own sake whereas the business man is concerned with getting immediate results. However that may be, both have an interest in identifying the methods that will be most effective in achieving whatever results are sought — what the theorist calls prediction. In this sense, prediction is as much the aim of management as it is of the sciences in general.

Can we predict, for example, what methods will be most effective in communicating management policy to employees — or to the public? Why is it that some messages "get across" while others are wide of the mark? What are the "unknowns" in the communication process? Perhaps we shall never find all the answers to these questions. Communication is so closely interwoven with every aspect of human behavior that its elements may never be completely analyzed nor its effects predicted with unfailing accuracy. But research has greatly advanced our knowledge of what happens in the process of communicating and has made available to management new techniques for diagnosing trouble spots and testing reactions to different forms of communication.

The purpose of this short article is to indicate a belief that we are only now approaching a synthesis and integration of related research and knowledge from many disciplines which may one day help us locate some elusive boundaries or meaningful definitions of communication. In a sense this purpose implies a definition, at least in a general way: namely, that communication is an interdisciplinary problem engaged in the location and definition of principles by which we may more intelligently and sytematically send, receive and most importantly, evaluate the human interchange of ideas.

Industrial communication as an area is not primarily concerned with specific skills as some elementary speech courses are, but with the broader dimensions of human understanding that are involved in all attempts to transfer meaning from one man to another. Zelko and O'Brien in their recent book *Management-Employee Communication in Action* state:

> " . . . communication has become the primary ingredient of human relations in the management of people. The concepts of leadership, work group, and teamwork are all based on the principles of information, understanding, consultation, and participation

which together are communication. But it is wrong to assume that communication involves merely a series of mechanical steps or acts.

Communication is a philosophy of management. In establishing a socially-integrated democratic work group a dynamic management program must have a sound philosophy of communication. It is the primary tool for contact with workers throughout a large organization, and it is the fundamental basis for the interrelationships of groups and individuals. It must start within the core of top management and be a continuing, pulsating network for the exchange of information and ideas up, down, and across the organization structure. It must be a part of management planning just as it is of production schedules, procurement of materials, and maintenance of machines. It must function at all times, not just to demonstrate an occasional and sudden awareness of its need.

In other words, management must be "communication conscious" at all times and in everything it does. This does not mean that management must bare its inner soul to the work group nor review every decision and plan openly. It does mean that management must consider communicating every decision and plan; and if this needs to be done, when and how this should be done. Communication is a constant part of all management planning."[1]

The first three chapters of this 177 page book suggest this synthesis and integration referred to earlier. However, the second part of the book is entitled, "Developing Communication Skills," with chapter headings as follow:

IV. ORAL COMMUNICATION: SPEAKING TO GROUPS
V. ORAL COMMUNICATION: PERSONAL RELATIONS
VI. ORAL COMMUNICATION: CONFERENCES AND MEETINGS
VII. WRITTEN COMMUNICATION: MEDIUMS AND METHODS
VIII. RECEIVING COMMUNICATION: LISTENING AND READING[2]

The authors do a fine job on interweaving principle and techniques in these chapters, but the emphasis is once again on skills. Most management people want skills or at least say they do. Management typically defines communication as relatively specific skills — such things as oral delivery, speech organization, formats and grammar, voice and diction, seating arrangements at conferences, etc. Of course these things are important. We make our living teaching or trying to teach these skills, but we try to teach more than just the skills. Industrial communication in an area sense is also much more than this!

This *more* is available to us in many forms and concepts such as climate, process, language meaning, semantics, leadership, group dynamics, learning theory, listening, human relations, audience, propaganda, personality, perception, problem solving and persuasion. Perhaps they add up to a philosophy of communication. Dr. Goyer's excellent article[3] on persuasion which preceded this one is an example of the synthesizing and philosophizing that should be a part of industrial communication. Some of the excellent writings and films by the late Irving Lee,[4] a speech professor, are splendid examples of how the broader concepts of language perception and semantics can become an important part of the philosophy of communication.

Charles Redfield in his recently revised book *Communication in Management* also indicates the interdisciplinary character of the subject when he writes:

"Because communication is concerned with the interactions of people, individually and in groups, the subject is interwoven with semantics, sociology, anthropology, psychology, education, and administration. Communication is the tool of the advertiser, the movie producer, the radio broadcaster, the newspaper editor, and the politician. The administrator draws on all communication resources in his day-to-day work, with his organization serving as a communication proving ground."[5]

This book is primarily concerned with the skills of administrative communication, but this was its intention and it satisfactorily achieves its purpose.

To anyone interested in this area, recommended reading would be *Effective Communication on the Job*, a book edited by Dooher and Marquis. The book is a reasonably well-arranged collection of essays by some twenty-two writers. The first two chapters written by Frank E. Fischer and Lydia Strong indicate that we may yet convince people that industrial communication is much more than a collection of gimmicks proffered by pseudo-social scientists and scholars as a cure-all for any illness.

> "It is true that management has come to recognize, in theory at least, the key role of communication; management books and periodicals are full of information about special devices and techniques. Many companies have created communications departments. Communication consultants have sprouted throughout the land. Management is estimated to spend over $112 million a year on publications in this field alone.
>
> And yet, many authorities charge that all this specialized and self-conscious communicating gets management nowhere. All the talk, the activity, and the prescriptions have failed to build a bridge between labor and management, between superior and subordinate. "We have been inept," says A. S. Igleheart, formerly Chairman of the Board and President of General Foods, "in communicating the ideas and information which create understanding among people who work together in an enterprise."
>
> Is this true? Have we really lost our way? Not completely, yet many of us are foundering for a number of reasons. First, we mistake the form of communication for its substance. We pay too much attention to media and devices, too little to content or purpose.
>
> Second, some of us oversimplify. We emphasize COMMUNICATIONS—employee magazines, reading racks, and the like — at the expense of *communication*, the complex, dynamic interaction that takes place every minute on the job."[6]

The book has some excellent sections in it including writings by Stuart Chase, Paul Pigors, Earl G. Planty and others. With due admiration for the editors, it is still a fair comment that twenty-two writers present a herculean task in terms of synthesis and continuity, and that unity and coherence tend to suffer in a book of this nature.

The foreword by Lawrence A. Appley indicates a general tendency to give oral communication a priority in this subject area. Perhaps this will help reassure some colleagues who wonder just how far afield a speech professor can get.

> "It (communication) enables us to see others, and to make ourselves 'seen' and known. It is the distinctive human characteristic that sets man apart from all others in the animal kingdom — and sets one man apart from another. Without it we could not live together or work together.
>
> More specifically, it is the way management gets its job done. There is little risk of over-simplication in saying that good managers are good communicators; poor managers are usually the opposite.
>
> It may also be said, I think, that interpersonal communication through the spoken word is the highest art of communication. A man can labor over a written communication, if he wishes, until it reveals very little of himself or his true feelings; or he can delegate it completely to someone else. But face-to-face communication is quite another matter. It is something every person is called upon to do, every day of his life. Every manager is doing it more often than not in the course of his daily job. Sooner or later it reveals what he is, what he believes."[7]

A pioneering work highly regarded in this area is *Communication Within Industry*[8] by Raymond W. Peters, Head of Employee Relations Research of the Esso Standard Oil Company. This book emphasizes the roles played by the development of the modern business environment, the rise of unionism and various psychological factors. It reviews current media, highlights training methods, opinion polls and gives some indication of how colleges, universities and other agencies are contributing to this area. It describes methods for evaluating communication techniques and outlines suggestions for improving communication programs.

Peters indicates some of the scope and importance of industrial communication as an area in the preface:

> "No job is more important to man-

agement and unions today than understanding and intelligently coping with human reactions and sentiments. This is one of the most difficult and least understood areas in the employee relations field, and no one can yet be sure of his ground. Finding ways of keeping employees continually cognizant of all facts so that they may arrive at correct decisions is a challenge to management and unions. This is an intramanagement problem as well. The difficulty becomes apparent as we examine a large organization where channels of communication are necessarily long. Orders, decisions, reports, information, and suggestions must flow through many insulating layers of technical, supervisory, manual, and clerical groups. As an organization grows and becomes more complex, its workers are separated from its top management, both physically and socially. As the gap between them widens, as changes occur in manufacturing processes and in personnel assignments, emotional tensions develop in individuals at all levels, which tend to prevent mutual understanding. Management looks to good communication as a key to these human relations problems."[9]

In the summary chapter Peters defines communication in a way compelling the speech profession to be involved:

"It is obvious that 'communication' covers all methods of making known, expressing or transmitting ideas and information. Furthermore, it has two major objectives: first, to inform, and second, to persuade or influence. In industry, communication is a two-way system whereby objectives, policies, and orders are transmitted downward, and desires and dissatisfactions are transmitted upward. It is analogous to the nervous system through which various stimuli bring about a co-ordinated response. Lack of co-ordination, misdirection, and failure to move in any direction at all result from an imperfect system of communication. It is the most important tool for promoting co-operative attitudes in employees and making them feel they are part of the industrial team. In the world at large, it can serve to restore faith, increase hope, correct thinking, eliminate ignorance and fear, and promote understanding among nations."[10]

Chapter VI is devoted to oral communication.

The purpose of this short article obviously did not include the concept of completeness. This is merely an attempt to expose and help delineate a relatively new area in speech. These are but some of the books in the area. Others that should be mentioned are: Marston, Thompson and Zacher, *Business Communication*;[11] Newcomb and Sammons, *Speak Up, Management*.[12] There are a number of excellent books in related social science areas too numerous to mention here. There are also books on the specifics of communication skills which I have not mentioned, e.g.: business writing,[13] business speaking,[14] etc.

It is interesting to note that only since 1943 have such basic reference works as *Psychological Abstracts* and *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* listed communications as a reference title. The books are all of relatively recent publication dates: the area academically is thus a recent one. Graduate students in speech, industrial psychology and industrial sociology at several universities have undertaken research pertinent to industrial communications. Only a few short years ago a pioneer in this area, the late Paul Emerson Lull, a professor of speech at Purdue University, founded and became first director of the Purdue Industrial Communications Research Staff. Others, like the late Irving Lee, professor of speech at Northwestern University, George Hinds at Wayne State University and Franklin H. Knower of Ohio State University were giving similar emphasis to research in this area.

In sum, the area is a rapidly growing one with an interdiscipline, social science and research orientation and tradition. It is very definitely a part of the speech department and while those of us trained in this area may stray to other departments and disciplines occasionally, it is only to keep up-to-date and to bring back to general speech training all the synthesis and integration of communicative behavior in which we are all interested.

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BOOKS: *Some of My Best Friends Use Debate Texts*

JOHN T. RICKEY — PURDUE UNIVERSITY

REFLECTIONS FROM THE RETIRED

NUMBER THREE

The Place of Creative Dramatics In Speech Education

WINIFRED WARD

Winifred Ward received the undergraduate degree—Bachelor of Philosophy—from the University of Chicago in 1918. Adelphi College awarded her the Honorary Doctor of Humane Letters in 1953 and Western College for Women, Oxford, Ohio, awarded her the Honorary Doctor of Humane Letters in 1957. Miss Ward was a member of the faculty of the Northwestern University School of Speech and Supervisor of Dramatics in the Evanston Public Schools. She founded and directed (for twenty-five years) The Children's Theatre of Evanston and is currently Honorary Director of The Children's Theatre Conference. Miss Ward's books include "Playmaking With Children", "Theatre For Children", "Stories to Dramatize" and "Creative Dramatics". "Retired" as applied to Miss Ward is narrowed in application to academic status only, for her influence from coast to coast remains most active through her travels, consulting and lecturing.

When Hughes Mearns' provocative book CREATIVE POWER was reprinted this year under the sponsorship of the Children's Theatre Conference, it brought back into circulation one of the most dynamic and timely books in education today. The education of youth in the creative arts, with which it is concerned, has come to be so significant a part of the public school curriculum that at the annual meeting of the American Association of School Administrators in Atlantic City in February it was featured in the five-day session. Great artists and artist groups were heard in the general sessions, following which were various interest groups discussing the place of each art in the school curriculum.

That arts rather than sciences were featured in so large and representative an association in a year such as this is evidence of balanced thinking on the part of those responsible for the program. And that drama

was given a place by the side of music and the graphic arts, both so well established in the elementary school curriculum, was a distinct sign of progress, drama having been introduced into education so much later than the other arts.

Creative drama, indeed, has gained phenomenal recognition in the past ten or fifteen years because psychologists and child development authorities consider it sound education. But except in a few schools it is not a curriculum subject and therefore, unfortunately, does not involve trained specialists or consultants. Many classroom teachers who use it in the social studies have had courses in the subject in a university or teachers' college, though these are only a fraction of the nation's teachers. Those who have been exposed to it are a leavening influence, however, and are often asked by their superintendents or curriculum directors to demonstrate its techniques for other teachers.

As one of the language arts this informal drama contributes to the speech education of elementary and junior high school students in a number of ways: by the experience of creative thinking which is inherent in the process when a group of children plan and develop a play of their own, using spontaneous dialogue that must come from their individual thoughts and feelings; by the controlled emotional outlet which helps children to grow toward emotional maturity; by the growth in understanding of people, the very essence of their study; and by the development of their ability to think on their feet and communicate their ideas.

I have often asked groups of junior high school students what they got from creative drama besides fun. Without fail their first answer has been, "It gets you over being afraid to say something before people." You who are concerned with extemporaneous speaking and debate can appreciate the value to a child of the experience of thinking on his feet and expressing his ideas fearlessly. And he does something still more difficult when he expresses not his own ideas but those of a character quite different from himself. He must think himself into this character and at the same time tell a story in action. He must react to other characters, reply to unexpected questions, meet various situations. There is probably no better school experience to make a person alert to anything that may happen!

In a creative play which some children were giving for the school and parents, the audience was watching a hunter as he crept stealthily through the forest with his gun. Not quite realizing how flimsy the stage trees were, he brushed against one of them, and suddenly it toppled and crashed to the ground! Surprised and amused by the catastrophe, the audience burst into laughter, and the teacher feared that the children's play was ruined. But she had reckoned without the boy's quick wit. For the young hunter stopped, studied the fallen tree for a moment, shook his head sadly, and remarked,

"There's a lot of dead timber in these parts!"

The laugh that came this time had in it appreciation for the player's resourcefulness; and the audience watched the rest of the play with keener enjoyment because of the boy's poise and quick thinking.

Such assets as these are not necessarily accompanied by a good voice and clean-cut speech. When a child is making the effort to think creatively — and it does require effort — he cannot at the same time think of how he is forming his vowels and consonants. Nor should he be corrected at the moment or there will be no more creativity. Exercises at a later time will help and the drill may carry over; but it must be admitted that in this aspect of speech formal plays can do more than creative dramatics.

Speech correctionists, however, who

are trained in this informal drama find that psychologically it is exactly what is needed by speech handicapped children for relaxation and confidence. Indeed, teachers have had children in dramatic classes for months without knowing they were stutterers because they always became so absorbed in their playing that they gave no indication that anything was wrong with their speech.

The techniques of creative drama are being used to a sometimes surprising degree not only in elementary schools but also in high schools and colleges. Role-playing of problems common to teen-age youth is much used in high school classes. Not only is this improvised drama popular with young people, and often effective in bringing about solutions to difficult situations, but if well guided it has a worthy contribution to make to their education in speech. When a group of officers in a school club, for instance, so dominated the activities of their organization that attendance began dropping off, it was suggested that they examine the trouble by means of a role-play. As is the case in all such plays, both sides of the problem were clearly shown, each faction realized where it had been at fault, and the situation was remedied.

I suppose every good acting class in the country uses creative dramatic techniques regularly, though they call it improvisation. Students are given situations in which certain characters find themselves and are asked to work them out creatively before the class just as children do. One of the best directors of university plays I know not only tries out students creatively, but before blocking out a scene she gives the players a synopsis of what happens and they lay aside their books and play it in their own words. Even after lines are learned, a director often requires the cast to play a scene with improvised dialogue in order to achieve naturalness.

Perhaps the greatest contribution creative dramatics could make to college speech and theatre would be a generation of young people who had been exposed to this informal drama since babyhood. If all parents would enter into the fun of make-believe with their children, and teachers would encourage boys and girls in all of the creative arts, we would have a college generation that would be more keenly aware of all that speech education has to offer and far more able to achieve individual distinction in the communication arts.

AUTUMN ISSUE - - OCTOBER — 1959

Reflections From The Retired..... *James M. O'Neill*

FIRST PRESIDENT (1915) OF THE NATIONAL
ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH

State Association News

Marceline Erickson
Mankato State College

STATE OFFICERS

While some state speech associations elected their officers at meetings held last spring, most of them elected their leaders this fall. Perhaps, it will be interesting to Central State members to know the persons elected to guide the respective state organizations. Officers of one state organization may wish to consult those who hold similar positions in other states.

In the winter issue, James S. McFadden was listed as president of the Indiana State Speech Association. Other officers are Dr. Charles Redding, Purdue University, vice-president; Dr. Mason A. Hicks, Purdue University, secretary-treasurer.

Dr. G. Bradford Barber, Illinois State Normal University, was elected as president of the Illinois State Speech Association at the fall meeting. B. F. Johnston, Joliet Junior College, is first vice-president; Robert Butler, Granite City, is second vice-president; Marcella Oberle, Northwestern University, is executive-secretary; Ralph McGee, New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, is editor of the Illinois State Journal; Ralph Lane, Glenbrook, is assistant editor; and Henry Vander Heyden, Bradley University, serves as business manager of the State Journal. Dr. Paul Crawford, Northern Illinois State University, was selected to serve as the state speech association's representative on the steering curriculum committee of the state department of education for a three year period. Dr. Kenneth Burns, University of Illinois, is the alternate of the association for this committee.

Earl W. Sherman, Cedar Rapids, is president of the Iowa State Speech Association; Palmer Kramer, Fort Dodge, is serving as vice-president; and Dr. Robert Gregg, State University of Iowa, is secretary-treasurer.

Harold O. Haskitt, Jr., Speech Section, General Motors Institute, Flint, is completing his term of office as president of the Michigan State Speech Association. Other officers are Mrs. Geraldine Bertovick, Grosse Point High School, vice-president; Dr. Helen Horton, Albion College, secretary-treasurer.

The newly elected officers of the Minnesota Association of Speech Teachers were given in the winter issue of the Central States Speech Journal.

Newly elected officers of the Missouri Association of Teachers of Speech are Mrs. Lucille Allen, Kirksville, president; Dr. Frances McCurdy, University of Missouri, vice-president; Dr. Robert Friedman, University of Missouri, secretary-treasurer.

Mrs. Virginia Floyd, Doane College, was elected president of the Nebraska State Speech Association; Mrs. Amy Sutton, Central High, Omaha, is to serve as vice-president; Dr. Maxine Trauernicht, University of Nebraska, is secretary; and Mrs. Mary Louise Alexander, Lincoln High, is treasurer.

William L. Hall, Denison University, is president of the Ohio State Speech Association. The vice-president is Raymond Yeager, Bowling Green State University; secretary-treasurer is Thomas Ludlum, Capital University.

The last state speech association news stated that Dr. Dorothy I. Summers would take office as the new president of the Oklahoma Speech Association. This state organization appears to have more officers than

any other state of the Central States area. Fred Kolch, Oklahoma State University is vice-president. The president-elect is Dora Hobbs of Cushing High School. The Oklahoma association has an interesting policy in that this officer serves as general program chairman for the coming year. The vice-president of the college division is Bruce Owens, Miami Junior College; the vice-president of the secondary division is Zazelle Gifford, Northeast High School, Oklahoma City; vice-president of the elementary division is Pearl Faulk, Tulsa; and vice-president of the Speech and Hearing division is Cedric Crink, Southwestern State College.

Dr. William Conboy, University of Kansas, president of the Kansas State Speech Association reports that Charles Goetzinger, Kansas State College, is the editor of the Kansas Speech Journal; and that Nels Havens of the Hutchinson High School is business manager.

Hazel Heimen continues as president of the South Dakota Speech Association; James Klassen, Redfield High School serves as vice-president; Alan Swanson, Milbank High School is secretary-treasurer and Dr. Harold Jordan, University of South Dakota is editor of the South Dakota Speech Teachers Bulletin.

Dr. Pauline Isaacson, Central State College, Stevens Point, was elected president of the Wisconsin State Speech Association this fall. Charles McGivern, Washington High School, Two Rivers, was elected vice-president and Catherine Miller, Rufus King High School, Milwaukee, secretary-treasurer. Members of the executive council are Eugene Bristow, Hartford; Elizabeth Gibson, Wauwatosa; Fred Haug, University of Wisconsin; C. J. Casper, Waupun; Joe Laine, Marquette University; and Hermione Knapp, Janesville.

In a recent telephone conversation, Lois Forrest, Dickinson, North Dakota indicated that she had acted as chairman of the speech section of the State High School Activities Association but that there was no state wide state speech association in North Dakota. Mrs. Jean Gentz, Bismarck High School will shortly assume that position and will assume leadership for the next speech sectional meeting held in connection with the state educational association meetings.

STATE COMMITTEES AND PROJECTS

The officers of the Ohio Association and Professor Austin Freeley, John Carroll make up the executive committee for that state speech organization. This state organization has an activities committee which may be new to several other state speech associations. The president serves as chairman. Other members are Professor G. Vernon Kelley, Wittenberg; Professor Tom Ludlum, Capital University; Professor Raymond Yeager, Bowling Green; Professor Jim Grissinger, Otterbein College; Mr. Harland Randolph, Ohio State University.

Oklahoma has several committees set up to study significant speech problems. One committee is to study and recommend textbooks for Speech to the State Textbook Commission. Members are Ted Nichols, Northwest Classen High School, Oklahoma City, chairman; Cedric Crink, Southwestern State College; Leslie Kreps, Oklahoma State University; Una Voight, Enid; Jim Ladd, Phillips University; Jim Robinson, Extension Division, University of Oklahoma; Doris Niles, Cushing High School. The committee on standards and ethics is made up of Dr. Carl Cass, School of Drama, University of Oklahoma and John Graham, Central State College, Edmond. Another committee is studying Speech and Drama Teacher Supply and Demand. Roger Nebergall, Speech Department, University of Oklahoma is serving as chairman. Dorothy Summers, president of the state speech association, comments that "Colleges in this state have found that education departments tend to

believe that there is an over supply of speech and drama teachers for the demand. We have tried to get statistical evidence which disproves this. It discourages speech majors."

South Dakota has a project underway in studying how to interest more prospective teachers in the field of speech.

James S. McFadden expresses the interest of the Indiana State Association in receiving "any information available on number of professional speech positions open in Central States on both the Secondary and College levels to be made available — also level of salaries in such positions."

Dr. Conboy, of Kansas, states that the major project of that state's speech association now is the compiling of positions in speech open in high schools and colleges and the compiling of materials of seniors graduating from the colleges and university qualified to take speech positions. The university, state teacher training schools and colleges are cooperating in this enterprise.

Harold O. Haskitt, Jr. reports that the sets of curriculum guides developed by a group of about 30 people of the Michigan State Speech Association under the direction of a steering committee: Mrs. Bea Olmstead, chairman, Hamtramck Public Schools; Dr. Hayden Carruth, University of Michigan; and Dr. James McMonagle, Wayne State University, are now available through Moyne Cubbage, Manager, Michigan High School Forensic Association, University of Michigan. The guides include the following: (1) Basic Speech for High School; (2) High School Interpretation; (3) Speech for the Intermediate Schools; (4) Discussion — Debate for High Schools; (5) Drama.

The South Dakota Speech Association has set up the following special committee to study speech problems in that state: College level, Kenneth Erickson, Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen; large high schools, Al Scarbrough, Washington High School, Sioux Falls; small high schools, R. G. Sweeley, High School, Beresford; Dramatics, Neil Luebke, high school, Pierre; Speech Correction, Professor James Kavanagh, University of South Dakota.

Several states may be interestd in the fact that South Dakota has a state publicity chairman. L. R. Kremer, Washington High School, Sioux Falls is serving in that capacity now.

While Michigan has completed some curriculum guides, other states are hard at work on courses of study. From Indiana comes the report "committee for the Required Course has held a preliminary meeting and assigned various units to prominent speech people throughout the state for completion, to be presented at the annual Speech Conference, to be held May 11, Indianapolis.

And from Missouri comes the report that progress has been made in formulating a Language Arts Curriculum, giving a more significant apportionment to Speech Arts."

Mr. Charles Caruson, one of the chairman of the curriculum committee for Minnesota, has submitted the following report of the progress of that committee: "The curriculum committee has been working two years in an attempt to construct a curriculum for the high schools of the state. The following individuals have been working on units: *Listening*, Ron Brown, the University Farm School; *Interpretative Reading*, Roger DeClercq, St. Louis Park High School; Roger Mosvick, Macalester College; *Radio*, Roger DeClercq, Roger Mosvick; *Public Speaking*, Roger Mosvick; *Parliamentary Procedure and Leadership*, Eileen Cole, Augsburg College; *Persuasion*, Roger DeClercq, Eldon Schultz, Cambridge High School; *Discussion*, Roger DeClercq, Robert Skouge, Denfield High School; *Problem Unit — Free Speech in a Democracy*, C. A. Caruson, Hopkins High School.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Letters commenting on articles appearing in this Journal should be sent directly to the editor. The purpose of these letters should be (1) to question content and/or (2) to provide further evidence in support of content. Permission to quote should be given by the writer. Copy deadlines are August 15, November 15 and February 15.

Ethical Proof PLUS

To the Editor:

I read with interest Lionel Crocker's brief essay entitled, "The Preacher's Personal Proof" (Winter 1959). Dr. Crocker, as a personal friend and respected former teacher of mine, is to be commended for his attention to the matter of the social images of the minister and the preacher's personal responsibility in the pulpit and in the community. The article contains an avalanche of illustration, indicating the author's background of extensive reading and his ever-growing collection of anecdotal material. His reading habits and ability to use relevant illustrations set a splendid example for those of us in the preaching ministry to follow. As I read and re-read the article, however, I found myself wishing that he had employed less illustration and more discussion, personal observation, and analysis in setting forth the main subject upon which he chose to write.

Dr. Crocker devotes himself in the article to a discussion of "the preacher's ethical proof." There is no doubt, of course, that ministers are often judged not so much by what they say as what they are. The strength of a man's ministry is certainly closely related to his character, personal integrity, moral standards, and the depth of his inner life and, for good or ill, a man's message and personal witness are measured and judged by prevelant social images, expectations, and taboos. We must always be reminded that the latter are not ultimate judgements but judgements of a transient character since they are likely to change from generation to generation and vary according to class, congregation, denomination, and geographic setting. The authority of the preaching and teachings of Jesus was indeed the authority of his unique life, his sense of righteousness, his moral purity, his forgiveness and compassionate love. The Man and his ideals, his faith and the outward expression of his faith were *one* as in no other person before or since. Jesus was confronted by finite and human "ethical proofs" and on numerous occasions found that he was in conflict with them. Jesus disregarded and transcended a number of the rigid conventions and legalistic religious images of his day. The people expected one thing and Jesus did the other, the unexpected and, what was to them, the unethical (i.e. disregarding the Sabbath law.) Jesus got into trouble and eventually was crucified because his life was being judged by limited, contemporary, "ethical proofs." In a sense Dr. Crocker seems to be making a subtle and perhaps unintentional plea for conformity when he writes, "Does not the personal proof of the preacher suffer when he does not conform to the image held by the congregation?" Many times the minister finds himself in the dilemma of having to choose between conforming to so-called "ethical proofs" and being faithful to his task and relevant to his generation. Here I am not referring to choices of smoking or drinking or wearing a pulpit gown or adopting the three unit name or not, but I am thinking of the more difficult moral choices of deciding to fulfill a prophetic ministry or defend the rights and dignity of minority groups or placing yourself on the side of the unpopular cause. These are not times when we should let finite, non-ultimate "ethical proofs" determine what we shall say or what stand we shall take as clergymen, professors, teachers and others.

I must confess that the word "proof" distresses me when it is applied to the Christian faith or to its ministers. Christianity ultimately does not depend on outward signs, rational or even ethical proof but upon faith and the grace of God which bestows the gift of faith. Aristotle and his fundamental division of proofs is quite irrelevant in any discussion of Christianity because the life of faith is always more than a matter of logical, emotional, or ethical proof. The authority of Christianity is the authority of the Word, the message of God, and supremely the Word of the Incarnation, the word become flesh. Every minister would soon be frustrated if he realized that the truth and validity of his message were judged on personal "ethical proofs" alone. A minister like every honest Christian confesses that he is always something of a hypocrite, desiring the best and doing the worst, teaching the ideal but also acknowledging his failure to live up completely to the ideal and the righteousness that God expects of his children. It's part of the superb honesty of the Christian faith. I find the term "ethical proof" inadequate in the sense that it is used in the article because the minister's life and

task goes much beyond this, to the reception and the sharing with others the good news of forgiveness in the life of faith and grace.

One additional brief comment. Dr. Crocker makes the statement that "Protestantism rejects the priestly or professional status of religious workers." Far from rejecting it, historic Protestantism has elevated all believers to the role of priest and minister. The battle cry of the Protestant Reformation is that we are all ministers in the priesthood of believers, that all men have a "profession" to make and to fulfill as faithful Christians. Protestantism does not reject the priestly status, but rather invites all men to join it it and to share in it.

I appreciated Lionel Crocker's thought provoking essay.

BENNETT L. OWENS
Denison University 1949
Yale Divinity School 1952
Mountview Baptist Church
Upper Arlington
Columbus, Ohio

Hypnotherapy NOT Discredited

To the Editor:

I enjoyed Carl H. Weaver's, "Hypnosis in Diagnosis and Therapy in the Speech Clinic." His discussion of the problem was most readable and informative. I would like, however, to record my reaction to his statement: "It is probably safe to say now, however, that hypnotherapy, using posthypnotic suggestion, has been almost completely discredited. . . . ." Such a statement does not accord with some of the more recent published works on Hypnotherapy and Stuttering.

H. McCord, ("Hypnotherapy and Stuttering," *Journal Clinical and Experimental Hypnosis*, 3, 210-214, 1955) has presented a most cogent review of articles pertaining to stuttering therapy and hypnosis. McCord believes that the evidence from these materials would indicate that hypnotherapy is a technique deserving further attention.

An unpublished Master's Thesis by Elliot and Stoll ("A Study of the Relationship Between Hypnosis and Relaxation with Stutterers." Brooklyn College, January 1952) also indicates the beneficial aspects that may accrue from hypnotherapy with stutterers.

Certainly Mr. Weaver does not mean that hypnotherapy is of no value to stuttering therapy. Indeed his position is quite the opposite. Yet to say that hypnotherapy has been discredited is too vast a generalization to swallow whole. Perhaps the layman has discredited its possibilities, but certainly not the vast majority of professional workers. The above-noted articles would seem to support this thesis.

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A Third Value?

To the Editor:

I have read with keen interest and appreciation Edwin R. Schoell's excellent article concerning the place of the original play in the educational theatres of the Central States. The discussion had, for me, two special values: 1) concrete comparative information concerning new play production, to provide a basis for individual comparison; 2) exposition of the divergent philosophies underlying new play production in our region.

Although it was not Mr. Schoell's purpose or intent to do so, I hoped once more to find a third value. Certainly, there is no alternative but to admit that the new play production record — not only for the Central States, but for the nation — is not a proud one. Yet, I find myself turning again and again to the figure mentioned in the article: that ". . . more than ninety per cent of the nation's educational theatres believe that they have an obligation to foster new dramatic writing." Mr. Schoell's article exposes vividly the difference between what an overwhelming number of educational theatres believe they *should* do, and what they *actually* do. Still, the reasons for the discrepancy, and the means for reducing or overcoming it, remain obscure.

Certainly, the facts of the article indicate that it is not a lack of willingness which is the primary obstacle (if the 90% figure is accurate). The answer must therefore rest on the fact that this obligation of the educational theatre has taken its place so relatively far down on the list of other masters to be served, and other practical problems to overcome, that it has not been discharged with vigor.

Whether this is right or wrong, good or bad, or just the unhappy result of inescapable pressures from other sources remains a question to be answered on the

basis of a set of values which have not yet been erected to the satisfaction of the multitude of sets of local circumstances. Certainly, the decision to give new plays a more significant place, quantitatively or qualitatively, on any production program is a decision which cannot be made except at a local level. Of considerable help to anyone faced with that decision would be something as concrete as Mr. Schoell's discussion, but concerned with the reasons a given answer is selected.

One thing is certain. Whatever individual practice or viewpoint, the matter seems of sufficient importance that an objective review, in the light of Mr. Schoell's facts, would seem in order for all of us. Any results of that review which could be shared with others would be of genuine value.

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Hearing Aid Help

To the Editor:

Regarding the televised lip-reading series "Eyes That Hear" of which Dr. O'Neill wrote in the winter issue of "Central States Speech Journal," may we have more of the same.

Because more and more people are attempting to wear hearing aids, especially among our older group of citizens, there is a deep need for information on how to live with a hearing aid, let alone make the maximum use of one.

Mrs. Schowe and I would like to suggest that future series dramatize a few of the many difficulties that beset the person who is beginning to wear a hearing aid. One of these difficulties might be that of exaggeration of sounds such as the crackling of newspapers, din of a city street, and the normal sounds of a household with children.

A new series should also emphasize that people with normal hearing can often help their friends or relatives who must depend upon their eyes more and more to help them "hear." For example, in a conversational group of people, it is very difficult for the hard-of-hearing person to follow the thread of conversation from one conversant to the next unless there is a slight pause permitting the "lip-reader" to re-focus his attention on the new speaker. Demonstrations of the distraction of lip-flipping cigarettes, tongue-bobbling of the gum chewer, or the need to peer through the haze of smoke might also help lighten the lip-reader's burden.

It was a surprise to note that television seemed to act as an instrument of analysis of speech-reading difficulties. For example, in personal contact, one does not seem to notice elements distracting to one's concentration in lip-reading. On the screen, however, backgrounds were noticeably distracting at times and movements of the speaker at critical moments could be identified as interfering with speech-reading.

Certainly, television is the best, if not the only medium, for reaching a majority of the people who would benefit from advice in re-orientation to the art of hearing.

BEN SCHOWE, JR.
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The Door Has Been Opened, But . . . ?

To the Editor:

I was glad to see Dr. Trotter's article on adaptation to cerebral palsied speech. This experiment has demonstrated what many of us have suspected for some time from clinical experience, i.e., that it is very possible that an impression of improvement of a speech defective child's speech may result from the clinician's own adaptation in listening to the child talk. Thus, parents of CP children are often misled by clinicians who are constantly (and apparently honestly) reporting that the child is making quite an improvement. The results of Dr. Trotter's study have many precautionary implications for therapists as well as speech pathologists who are involved almost daily in diagnosing children's speech. It seems feasible that we who are in the speech and hearing profession may be so adapted in listening to defective speech that the speech of a child may actually sound less alarming to us than to one who is not accustomed to listening to defective speech.

Listening adaptation is not peculiar to stuttering and cerebral palsied speech. Chaiklin demonstrated that listeners adapted to English speaking foreign students.[2] Black has pointed out that intelligibility is a function of familiarity and so we would expect the understanding of cerebral palsied speech to improve with repeated exposure.

I have one minor complaint about the apparent lack of controls or lack of reporting of controls used in certain phases of the design of Dr. Trotter's study. For example, there was no indication that intensity of heard stimuli was constant from one listening session to another. This would have a decided bearing on judgments of severity of speech defect, since at least one aspect — speech intelligibilty — is directly influenced by intensity. Also, the same material was listened to in each listening session. This makes it impossible to generalize as to whether adaptation was to "speech" or to "materials spoken." Perhaps random use of equated materials would rule out the "materials" variable in future research.

Other questions which Dr. Trotter's article provoked in me are:

1. How long does the slope of the adaptation curve rise on repeated exposure. Dr. Trotter's data showed less critical judgments in the second and third sessions than in the first, but about the same kind of judgments in the second and third sessions. Does this imply a possible early plateau in adaptation?

2. Studies in stuttering behavior show that there is spontaneous recovery from adaptation after a lapse of time. Although Dr. Trotter's study did not intend to show this, it would be interesting to know if the same thing happens in "listening adaptation."

3. One wonders also whether the fact that listeners adapt to defective speech may have had an influence that was not taken into account in earlier studies on adaptation of stutterers' speech. The studies of Wischner,[6] Starbuck and Steer,[5] Newman,[4] Jones,[3] and others, all used "listener judgments" in determining stutterers' speaking adaptation.

4. Do persons with listening problems adapt in listening at a faster rate than do normal listeners? Starbuck and Steer[5] found that persons with defective speech showed faster and greater speaking adaptation than did normal persons. Again the answer to this was outside the scope and intent of Dr. Trotter's study, but it would be interesting to know whether there is a counterpart to the above finding in "listening adaptation."

I suspect that only additional research will answer these questions; but I think that Dr. Trotters' studies have opened the door a little wider in a relatively new area of investigation.

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February 1, 1959

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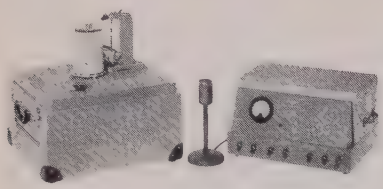

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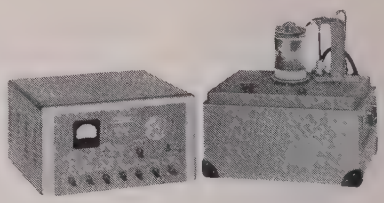

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